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Implementing Ethiopia's CPD Framework:a case of policy borrowing

Bignold, Brenda Maureen

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Declaration of authorship

I am the author of this thesis and the work described therein was carried out by myself personally.

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Abstract

Increasing student enrolment following MDG 2 has focussed attention on teacher quality in low-income countries. Continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers in classrooms is important for education quality. However CPD experience in low-income countries is limited and heavily dependent on policy borrowed from the Global North. This enquiry examines implementation of CPD policy in Ethiopia, an example of policy borrowing, to identify challenges and opportunities to support borrowed teacher education programmes in Ethiopia and similar countries.

The research methodology is constructivist and interpretivist with a qualitative case study of twelve rural primary schools in Northern Ethiopia. Data from interviews and a reflective journal is used to answer three research questions: To what extent does current practice in Ethiopian schools align with CPD policy? What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework? How can this analysis inform successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in future? The findings show that the CPD Framework is embedded in schools. In spite of problems in planning, training and leadership, there is evidence of changed teacher practice in collaborative working and active learning methodology linked to the policy.

The enquiry used a model for analysing policy borrowing (Phillips and Ochs, 2003) to shape the review of literature on global and local influences, implementation and context. Building on the enquiry findings, a new model is proposed to share learning on policy borrowing more broadly. The enquiry therefore has implications for the implementation of borrowed policies for CPD in Ethiopia and in other low-income countries. It helps fill gaps in the literature on CPD in Africa and on implementing borrowed policy in teacher education. In addition, outcomes could inform policy making and contribute to improved opportunities for teacher education in low-income countries in line with the SDGs.

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My field work trip to Ethiopia would not have been possible without a great deal of support. I would like to mention in particular Barbara and John Singleton-Crisp, David Stables of ACET, Judy Price, Abeba Abate in Bahir Dar and Bisrat Mesfin in Mekelle. I am very grateful to all the participants from the two REBs, Hintalo Wejerat woreda and the twelve schools who contributed to this research: particular thanks go to the participants in the Tigray schools who gave up holiday time to answer my questions.

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Contents

List of Abbreviations

ADB: African Development Bank

CPD: Continuous Professional Development

CTE: College of Teachers Education

DFID: Department for International Development

EFA: Education for All

ESDP: Education Sector Development Plan

ETP: Education and Training Plan

GEQIP: General Education for Quality Improvement Programme

GNI: Gross National Income

HDI: Human Development Index

HDP: Higher Diploma Programme

INSET: In-Service Education and Training

JICA: Japanese International Cooperation Agency

LCE: Learner Centred Education

LEA: Local Education Authority

MDG: Millennium Development Goal

MOE: Ministry of Education

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

REB: Regional Education Bureau

RQ: Research Question

SDG: Sustainable Development Goal

SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa

TESSA: Teacher Education for Sub-Saharan Africa

UN: United Nations

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

VSO: Voluntary Service Overseas

WCT: World Cultural Theory

WSA: World Systems Analysis

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1. Topic of study

In 2000 the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) agreed by the United Nations (UN) included the ambitious education goal 'To achieve universal primary education' (MDG website).This education MDG was not fully achieved by 2015 but there were significant improvements in access to primary education in all regions with the greatest increases in student enrolments in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (UNDP). In the later MDG period there was an increasing focus on the quality of education provided for the newly enrolled students. This was closely associated with the quality of teaching and in turn focussed attention on the training provided for teachers especially as increased student numbers meant that many teachers were entering classrooms with little training. Building on the MDGs, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), agreed in 2015 to be achieved by 2030, included a new education goal (SDG4) with a clear focus on quality 'To ensure inclusive and equitable quality education…' with ten supporting targets including

> 'Substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries.' (SDG website)

This SDG target recognises the link between teacher training and quality education. It also acknowledges the need for international action on teacher training. This is particularly important in SSA where there has been limited in-service training for teachers with provision largely based on policy and practice 'borrowed' from the Global North (Hardman et al, 2011).This background suggests that research into a 'borrowed' policy for teacher education in one SSA country is timely and could contribute knowledge to support this important new development goal.

This enquiry examines implementation of the Continuous Professional Development (CPD) Framework in Ethiopia as an example of policy borrowing. The Framework is a national policy and is compulsory for all teachers in Ethiopian schools. However it was developed using experience and expertise from England and therefore constitutes an example of policy borrowing in teacher education. This enquiry examines progress on implementation eight years after the introduction of the policy in 2009 using a case study based on 12 rural primary schools in Northern Ethiopia. The enquiry takes account of the theoretical literature and of my experience as an Adviser on CPD in the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Ethiopia in 2011 at the early stages of implementation. Consideration of the literature is shaped using a model of policy borrowing adapted from work by Phillips

and Ochs (2003) with four stages: global influences, regional and local influences, implementation and internalisation.

The enquiry focuses on implementation of the CPD Framework policy at school level identifying the progress which has been made and the challenges and opportunities experienced during the process. The enquiry then proposes a new model to support analysis of policy borrowing in teacher education which shares learning from the case study more broadly both in Ethiopia and in other low-income settings.

2. Rationale

Maxwell (2009) has identified three types of goals for research: personal, practical and intellectual. He has suggested that it is important to recognize that personal goals may drive and inform research and has noted

> 'Eradicating or submerging your personal goals and concerns is impossible and attempting to do so is unnecessary.' (p.219)

In addition, he has identified practical goals about meeting a need, and intellectual goals about gaining insight into what is going on and why. In this enquiry, I analyse implementation of a borrowed policy with which I have had personal involvement. I want to understand more about what was going on and why (intellectual) and to identify approaches which could make this or similar policies more effective in supporting teachers in low-income countries (practical).

2.1 Personal

Maxwell has suggested that researcher identity and experience can constitute valuable elements within the research design. These elements have traditionally been seen as sources of bias but Maxwell has suggested an approach of 'critical subjectivity' (p.225) where personal experience can contribute to the enquiry process. This approach has been adopted for this enquiry which includes consideration of researcher positioning in Chapter 3 (context) and Chapter 4 (methodology).My background in education policy in England and Ethiopia has informed this enquiry.

I have extensive experience as a manager and leader in Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England working with local politicians and taking responsibility for providing services to schools. My most senior role was as Director of Education responsible for 350 schools. I then built on this experience working as a consultant with national organisations, LEAs and schools. I therefore have broad experience of education policy implementation in England including at the Department for Education.

I hoped that my Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) placement as CPD Adviser in the MOE would provide opportunities to share this experience and contribute to developments in education policy. In the event, CPD was not a priority for MOE. Education officials provided some training on the new policy but there were no arrangements for monitoring or supporting implementation. I took opportunities to visit schools and assess progress, and also learnt first-hand about development and Ethiopian culture. I contributed to the introduction of the CPD Framework and identified problems with the early stages of implementation. This enquiry has provided opportunities to understand the policy tensions more clearly, to examine progress against the policy objectives independently and to identify learning from the process.

2.2 Intellectual

Early experience of the CPD Framework meant that I wanted to understand more about the reasons for the initial problems. I was not then familiar with the concept of policy borrowing but I could see that a policy, which was based on practice from England and did not reflect conditions in Ethiopia, was running into difficulties in spite of government endorsement, good will and the investment of considerable resources. Ministers recognised the need to enhance teachers' skills in order to improve educational opportunities for Ethiopian students. From my perspective the chosen approach was not working well but it was difficult for local officials to acknowledge this or suggest improvements. In these circumstances there seemed to be a useful role for an informed but independent outsider to identify what was happening and why. This is the intention of this enquiry.

2.3 Practical

In SSA success in increasing enrolment to primary schools in line with MDG2 created problems in recruiting enough teachers to work with the students: under-qualified, unqualified and volunteer community teachers were used to fill the gaps (Thakrar, 2009). There is therefore a significant need in these countries for in-service teacher training or CPD to enhance the skills of teachers already in classrooms who have limited experience, skills or training to call on while working in challenging school environments. However experience of CPD has been limited in SSA generally (Hardman, 2011). In Ethiopia there were national policies on CPD (MOE, 2005 and 2009) but they enjoyed mixed success. It would therefore be useful to analyse implementation of the CPD Framework and identify findings which could help schools and MOE in Ethiopia, and also support other low-income countries in planning and delivering professional development programmes for serving teachers. This work could benefit teachers, improve the quality of education and contribute to achieving SDG4.

3. Aim, Objectives and Research Questions

The remaining sections of this chapter present the aim, objectives and research questions for the enquiry, summarise the key literature, and concepts which frame this enquiry, and introduce the research methodology and methods used to answer the research questions. The chapter concludes by setting out the remaining chapters of the enquiry.

3.1 Aim

The enquiry analyses implementation of the policy for teachers' CPD in Ethiopia, known as the CPD Framework (MOE, 2009), as an example of policy borrowing. The aim is to identify enablers and barriers to success, analyse the reasons for them and identify learning from this example of policy borrowing to be shared more broadly. The enquiry should enhance knowledge and understanding of CPD, which is limited in SSA, and underline the importance of context and context sensitivity in policy implementation. The research is intended to inform continued implementation of the CPD Framework and also of other similar programmes to enhance the skills of serving teachers. It should therefore contribute to improving education quality in Ethiopia and other low-income countries.

3.2 Objectives

The objectives of the enquiry are

- To critically review international literature through the lens of a policy borrowing model
- To introduce the CPD Framework, including a brief document analysis
- To conduct an empirically grounded case study focussing on policy implementation in primary schools in Northern Ethiopia
- From the data analysis, to develop a contextually grounded understanding of implementation in practice
- To consider the implications of the findings for the theoretical literature and for further research
- To consider the implications of the findings for the continued implementation of the CPD Framework and for borrowed policy on teacher education in low-income settings more broadly

3.3 Research Questions

Alongside these objectives the enquiry is framed by the following research questions (RQs):

1. To what extent does current practice in Ethiopian schools align with CPD policy?
2. What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework?

3. How can this analysis inform successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in future?

4. Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

A literature review identified the key concepts and RQs which have informed the enquiry including the research methodology, methods and analysis of the data to answer the RQs. The key concepts identified from the literature review are policy borrowing and context. Given the central focus on policy borrowing, the literature review was shaped by a four stage model of policy borrowing, based on work by Phillips and Ochs (2003), comprising global influences, regional and local influences, implementation and internalisation. The following paragraphs identify key studies at the different stages which are considered in detail in Chapter 2.

Global influences are important in Ethiopia. Although it has never been colonised, Ethiopia has been a major aid recipient for over thirty years in response to significant poverty levels combined with an important strategic location. Education in Ethiopia is therefore subject to global influence reflected through the work of the World Bank. Key literature on these global influences includes work by Marshal (2014), Phillips and Schweisfurth (2014), and Spring (2015) on educational globalisation together with literature on World Culture Theory (WCT).This influential theory, which proposes voluntary convergence to a common global cultural model of education, has been convincingly critiqued by Rappleye (2015) and Takayama (2015). Other relevant literature relates to international views on school leadership (Leithwood et al, 2008, Bush and Glover, 2014) and CPD (Kennedy, 2005 and 2014; Guskey, 2002).

Regional and local influences are important in determining the likely success of policy borrowing. They include local approaches to school leadership, teaching methodology and teacher education. Key studies on school leadership by Oplatka (2004), Oduro and MacBeath (2003) and Mitchell (2015) have identified the expectations of school leaders in the Global South, where low status, transactional roles contrast markedly with international views on the contribution of school leaders to school improvement. On teaching methodology, work by Schweisfurth (2011), Thompson (2013) and Derebssa (2006) has shown that the introduction of student -centred education has generally been difficult in low-income countries, including Ethiopia. Although literature on teacher education in SSA is limited, work by the TESSA (Teachers Education in Sub-Saharan Africa) project, in particular Hardman (2011) and Thakrar (2009), has usefully suggested approaches appropriate to the challenging teaching environment in East Africa. In

Ethiopia, literature on teacher education (MOE, 2012; Barnes et al, 2018) has underlined problems in introducing student-centred active learning approaches (Schweisfurth, 2011).

There are significant gaps in the literature at the implementation stage of the policy borrowing model. Steyn (2010), Hasler (2014) and O'Sullivan (2002) have provided some examples of implementation in Africa while McDevitt (1998) and Lange (2014) have critiqued cascade training, a common feature in implementing policy in the Global South. However, overall this literature proved insufficient for the enquiry to draw on.

Regional and local influences, together with the examples of implementation, underline the importance of context. Key literature on context is presented at stage 4 of the policy borrowing model. Specific analyses, by O'Sullivan (2002) and Ridley (2011), have pointed up the challenges of policy borrowing in practice where approaches have been uncritically transferred with no adaptation for the new context. Broader consideration of context has been informed by Dimmock and Walker's work identifying the significance of societal culture (2000) and particularly by Crossley (2008, 2010, 2012) who is clear that context insensitivity may result in implementation failure.

All four stages of the literature review emphasise the key concepts of policy borrowing and context which have informed the RQs and the rest of the enquiry. The overall context for the enquiry is set by reference to conditions in Ethiopia, including in education and CPD, and to the challenges of researching in the Global South (Chapter 3).This context directly affects the processes of policy implementation which are the focus of the enquiry.

5. Research methodology and methods

The key concepts of policy borrowing and context have informed the research methodology and methods for this enquiry which are presented in Chapter 4. The methodology is subjectivist and anti-positivist with constructivist ontology and interpretivist epistemology (Cohen, 2007). It is also qualitative and the methods used are those associated with this methodology (Sarantakos, 2005). This is a case study examining the implementation of national CPD policy in a sample of twelve primary schools in Northern Ethiopia (Gerring, 2004; Robinson, 2014). During a field-trip to the area, data was collected by means of a field journal (Mulhall, 2003; Berger, 2015; Phillippi and Lauderdale, 2017) and interviews with education officials, Principals and teachers involved in policy implementation (Potter and Hepburn, 2005; Nunkoosing, 2005). The issue of researcher positioning has also been considered (Gair, 2012; Milligan, 2016).

Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced the topic of study, set out the aim, objectives and RQs for the enquiry and summarised information from the literature review, leading to the identification of the key concepts of policy borrowing and context which underpin the enquiry and inform the research methodology and methods. The remaining chapters provide detail on the literature review and conceptual framework (Chapter 2), the overall context for the enquiry (Chapter 3), the research methodology, methods and data collection (Chapter 4), findings and discussion (Chapters 5 and 6) and implications of the enquiry (Chapter 7).

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

This chapter reviews literature relevant to this enquiry and identifies the key concepts and research questions (RQs). The enquiry examines an example of policy borrowing. This literature review is therefore structured around a model of policy borrowing from Phillips and Ochs (2003) adapted to fit current conditions in Ethiopia. Literature relevant to the enquiry is considered in line with the four stages of this analytical model. The chapter concludes by identifying the key concepts drawn from the review and the RQs for the enquiry..

1. Models for policy borrowing

1.1 Introduction

Policy borrowing is an aspect of policy transfer. Cowen (2009) has defined policy transfer as 'the movement of an educational idea or practice in … international space' and has highlighted the complexity of the concept: 'as it moves, it morphs' (p.323). Phillips and Schweisfurth (2014) have identified an approach to policy transfer where policy is 'borrowed purposefully' by 'intentional copying of policy/practice observed elsewhere ' (p.46).These definitions, including the idea that transfer inevitably involves change, inform consideration of policy borrowing in this enquiry.

Phillips and Ochs (2003) have presented a model for analysing policy borrowing with the following four stages:

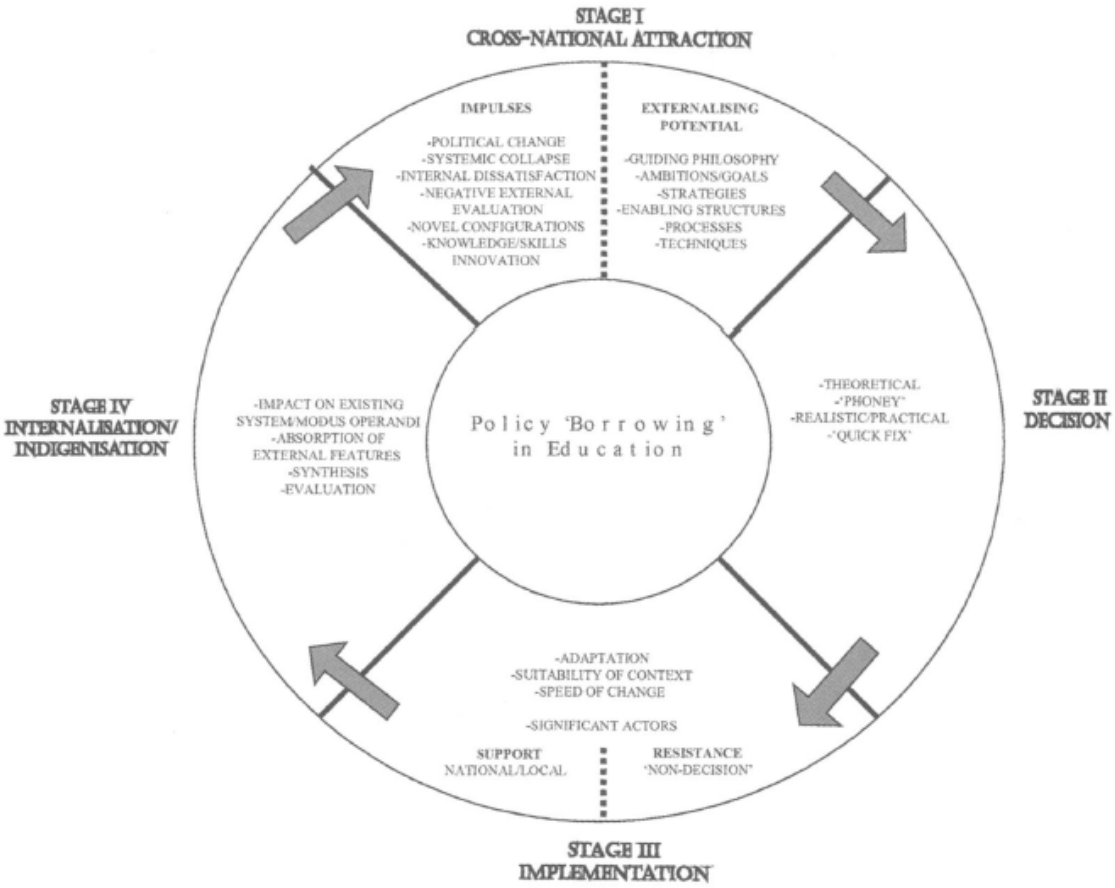
1. Cross-national attraction
2. Decision
3. Implementation
4. Internalisation or indigenisation

These stages broadly align with other analyses of policy borrowing: Schweisfurth and Phillips (2014) have presented a three stage process comprising identification, introduction and assimilation, and Cowen (2009) has identified three phases of transfer, translation (or re-interpretation) and transformation (or indigenisation) when developments 'freeze, morph or disappear' (p.323).This section critiques Phillips and Ochs' model from the perspective of policy borrowing in Ethiopia, and introduces an adapted model to shape the literature review.

1.2 Critique of Phillips and Ochs' model

Phillips and Ochs summarised their model for policy borrowing in the following diagram. The four stages are considered below.

Figure 1: Policy borrowing: Phillips and Ochs' model (from Phillips and Ochs, 2003, p.452)



Stage 1

In Stage 1 the authors identified two influences for policy borrowing: impulses, or preconditions for borrowing, and externalising potential, or aspects of policy and practice which could be borrowed. The most significant impulses for this research would appear to be:

- Internal dissatisfaction combined with perceptions of the superiority of other approaches

- External evaluation
- Novel configurations (which includes globalisation)

Phillips and Ochs appear to have made the following underpinning assumptions in Stage 1: that borrowing would be initiated by the country with problems to solve, that borrowing would be between individual nations and that there would be similarities between the countries involved. In a global context it is not clear that these assumptions apply as policy borrowing may be influenced by global agendas rather than national ambitions and may take no account of enabling infrastructure or context. The authors acknowledge concern about 'the complex significance of context , the 'embeddedness' of aspects of educational … provision in the locally prevailing cultural and other conditions' (p.457).Context is likely to be particularly significant where policy borrowing is on a global scale.

Stage 2

In Stage 2 the authors identified different measures to start the process of change. 'Phoney' related to Ministers bringing home ideas which 'will have instant appeal … but for which there is no likelihood of introduction into the home system' (p.455).Such borrowing would take no account of infrastructure or context. 'Realistic/practical' related to successful measures which were not 'the essential product of contextual factors which would make them not susceptible to introduction elsewhere' (p.455).This suggests that Phillips and Ochs believed that some measures could be divorced from their context which is problematic. However it does emphasise the importance of context. The authors also recognised the dangers of 'quick fix' decisions where 'insufficient regard was had to the context of implementation' (p.455).This analysis suggests the importance of considering context reflected in regional and local factors, at Stage 2.

Stage 3

In Stage 3, Phillips and Ochs identified factors of adaptation, suitability of context and speed of change. The authors have drawn attention to 'the adaptation any foreign model will inevitably be subjected to within the context of the borrower system' (p. 456). This raises the question of the scope for adaptation before introduced policy loses the perceived benefits of being validated by external experience. It is important to note that context will affect implementation. However differences in context are much easier to see from the outside. Education policy and practice in the Global North does not typically

acknowledge or even recognise the taken-for-granted aspects of its origins. These origins may also be reinforced by advisers working overseas but relying on their 'home' professional experience, who may adopt an ethnocentric approach which presents their own approach as natural, correct and the only true way (Schultz and Lavenda, 2011, quoted in Marshall, 2014, p. 20). It is therefore challenging to expect receiving countries to have sufficient understanding of the differences between contexts to make formal adaptations in policy although there are likely to be changes as policy is implemented. Adaptation and speed of change may therefore be linked. Phillips and Ochs have noted

> 'Given the potential need for revision of complex and well-established procedures… considerable time might elapse before the impact of the new measures is felt.' (p.456)

Timescales were likely to be even more extended in cases of policy borrowing where context and culture needed adaptation as well as processes and procedures. The authors also identified the importance of 'significant actors' in influencing the rate of change at local level. These actors would themselves be influenced by local context reflected in support and resistance at national and local levels. These points would suggest some overlap between Stage 3 (implementation) and Stage 4 (internalisation/indigenisation) as reflected in other theoretical analyses with only three stages.

Stage 4

The last stage of Phillips and Ochs' analysis is internalisation or indigenisation when 'the policy becomes part of the system of education of the borrower country' (p.456). They have suggested that this will involve four steps:

- impact on the existing system
- absorption of external features
- synthesis (where the new policy becomes part of the overall strategy)
- evaluation (where the process starts again)

Synthesis and evaluation are most relevant to this enquiry.

The authors also identified the need to examine the influence of context on policy borrowing. Although their model reflected experience of British borrowing from Germany, it has also been applied where policy borrowing has taken place between very different contexts. Asri (2012) used the model in research on clusters of excellence in Malaysia (quoted by Crossley, 2012) while Schweisfurth (2006) applied it to her analysis of different

international influences in post-genocide Rwanda, concluding that Stage 4 had not yet been reached.

1.3 Adapted model

Phillips and Ochs presented their model to support analysis of practical examples of policy borrowing. It therefore provides a useful structure for this enquiry which analyses an example of policy borrowing in Ethiopia. This literature review is shaped in line with Phillips and Ochs' model adapted to take account of the above critique, and to reflect the Global South context and the focus of the enquiry on implementation of borrowed CPD policy. The adapted model (Figure 2) retains the four stages from the original model but Stages 1 and 2 reflect the impact of globalisation on policy borrowing decisions. The four stages of the adapted model are:

1. Global influences
2. Regional and national influences
3. Implementation
4. Internalisation

The following sections consider the different strands of literature relevant to the enquiry using Figure 2 (below) to structure the analysis.

2. Literature Review

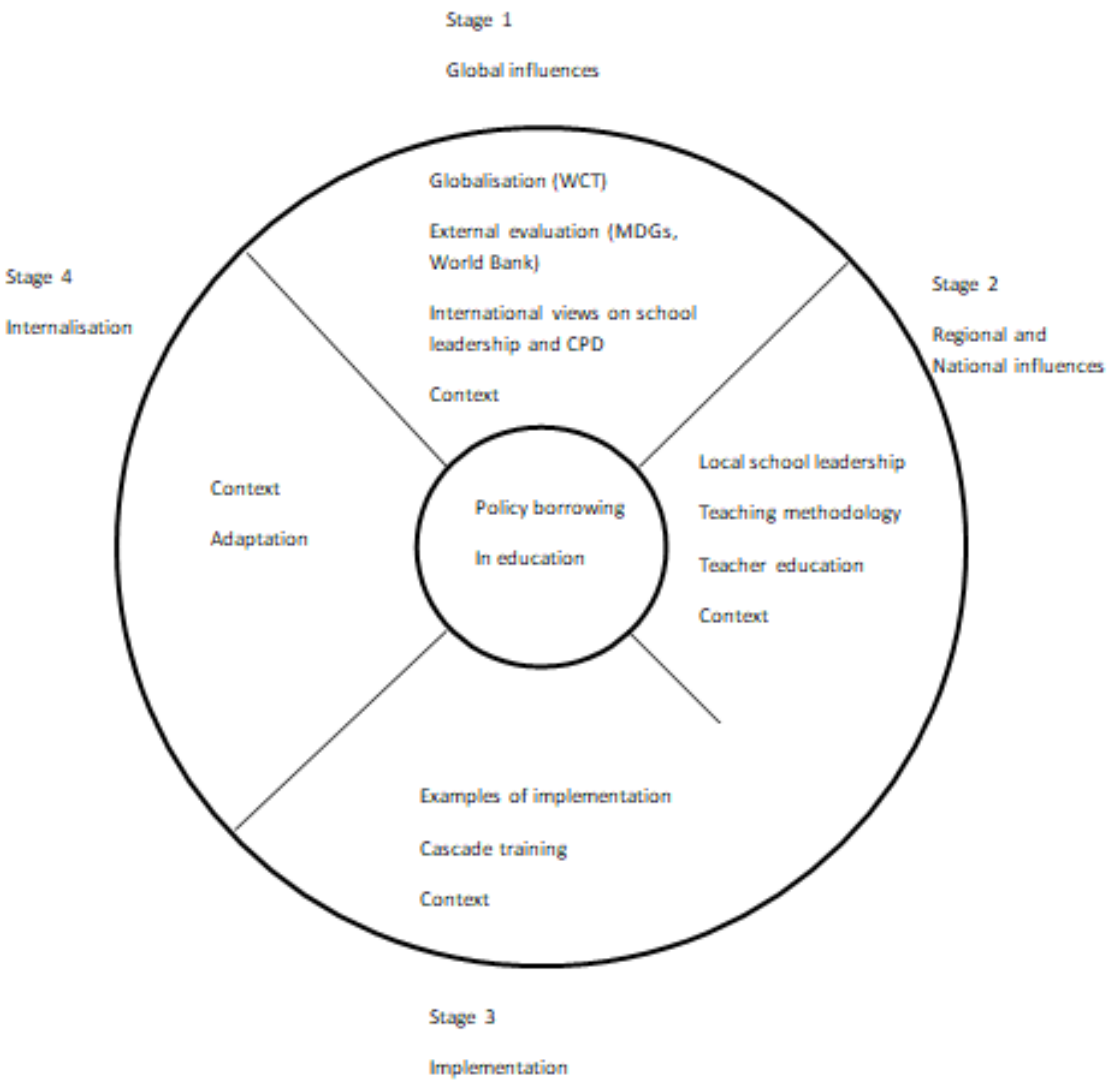
2.1 Global influences (Stage 1)

This section focusses on literature relating to global influences which provided 'impulses' for policy borrowing specifically globalisation, external evaluations by the World Bank and MDGs and international views on school leadership and CPD.

2.1.1 Globalisation and education

This enquiry is concerned with the impact of globalisation on the global sharing of policy and practice in education through policy borrowing. Globalisation has been defined as 'the widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life '(Held,1999 quoted Bray, 2003, p.210). In recent years recognition and understanding of global interdependence has been reinforced by concerns about the environment, international migration, and the impact of economic progress in the Global South (Todaro and Smith, 2009). There is general agreement that globalisation is complex and influential with literature identifying three schools of thought: hyperglobalists, sceptics and transformationalists (Bray, 2003; Martell, 2007; Marshall, 2014).

Figure 2: Policy borrowing: adapted model for Ethiopia



The impact of globalisation on education policy and practice is recognised as significant but there is continuing debate about the how such changes are achieved, their extent and desirability, and the broader implications, in particular on the links between education and economic development.

The following definitions relate to global movements of education practice:

> ‘the tendency for similar policies and practices to spread across political, cultural and geographical boundaries (Dimmock and Walker, 2000,p.304);
>
> ‘worldwide networks, processes and institutions affecting local educational practices and policies’ (Spring, 2015,p.1)

These definitions highlight the idea of world-wide flows of ideas, policies and processes which in turn may contribute to similarities in education policy and practice in different countries. Spring (2015) has suggested that approaches disseminated in this way may include policy drivers for decentralisation, privatisation and accountability as well as practical changes including the education market, the influence of technology, and the use of English as a global language and medium of instruction.. He has identified seven different aspects of global flows including contacts between educational policymakers, academics and schools. He has further suggested the existence of a global education superstructure, informed by governments and intergovernmental organisations, NGOs, education professionals and multi-national education corporations. From this analysis, it is clear that global agendas are important. Professional influence, including through international curricula, may also be significant. However the impact of multi-national education corporations and the existence of a global superstructure seem more questionable. Spring’s theory is useful in identifying key influences in education globalisation, but requires a secure evidence base to be wholly convincing, especially as there are likely to be different national and local responses to the pressures identified. In particular, both Dale (1999) and Dimmock and Walker (2000) have drawn attention to the mediating influence of culture and context which suggests that the effects of globalisation of education are likely to be differentiated rather than uniform (Martell, 2007). Although the exact mechanisms are debated (Dale, 1999), increased ease of communication and interaction mean that developments in education are increasingly shared world-wide through policy borrowing.

2.1.2 Globalisation and theory

World Culture Theory (WCT)

WCT is strongly associated with globalisation. It proposes a process of voluntary convergence (isomorphism) towards a common global cultural model of education (Silova and Rappleye, 2015). It recognises interfaces between global and local, policy and culture and suggests a theoretical context which encourages policy borrowing

WCT has been important for over 20 years and has been subject to considerable critical analysis. It has been criticised as only representing Western views and under-valuing economic influences and conflict (Griffiths and Arnove, 2015) while recent analyses have focussed on the divergence between global 'norms' and local meanings which may detract from the value of the overall theory (Silova and Rappleye, 2015).

Recent critiques of WCT include work by Rappleye (2015) and Takayama (2015). Rappleye challenged WCT by applying it to historic developments in Japan. He suggested that any convergence was not consensual, resulting from a shared world vision, but rather the result of drivers which might be contrary to national traditions and could encourage superficial adoption with little substantive change. He criticised WCT for ignoring micro-realist concerns, avoiding key issues and reinforcing Western domination of world views. This convincing critique references concerns about policy implementation and is therefore directly relevant to this enquiry. Takayama has criticised WCT for its lack of attention to policy diffusion, contextual mediation and the role of supra-national organisations, but his main challenge has been to highlight the 'unquestioning acceptance of a Western-centric world view'(p.36).This is an important issue for this research on policy borrowing requiring careful consideration of context and of researcher positioning.

WCT has relevance to this enquiry as it provides an established theoretical context for policy borrowing. However overall I do not find the theory convincing even though supporters argue for 'global convergence and local distinctiveness' (Silova and Rappleye, 2015, p.2). Such a broad theory will always be open to criticism based on detail and practice in particular circumstances (Rappeleye, 2015). As a practitioner, I am sceptical about the central concept of 'global sameness' as a planned ambition. While there are clearly common features in national education systems world-wide, it is the differences rather than the similarities which are most significant. Although there may be drivers towards convergence, I find the idea of global consensus simplistic with examination of areas of local adjustment more important. Moreover Takayama's criticism of WCT as Western-centric is important. As a European and an outsider, I recognise the need for context sensitivity as my thinking will inevitably be informed by English culture and experience.

Alternative theories

This section briefly reviews other relevant theories to assess whether they might provide a secure theoretical context for this research on policy borrowing.

World Systems analysis (WSA): Griffiths and Arnove (2015) have suggested that WSA theory could link economics and culture more clearly than WCT. In addition, they have argued that WSA gives strong emphasis to the capitalist world economy and allows scope for multi-disciplinarity and conflicting interests. They have provided a useful critique of WCT. However their presentation of WSA as a better option is not wholly convincing as they have failed to distinguish clearly enough between WCT and WSA, and have also strongly emphasised economic drivers which may be less influential in SSA.

Human capital theory: This theory presents education as primarily concerned with the acquisition of the skills and attitudes needed for economic growth. It favours decentralisation and privatisation together with school autonomy, accountability and parental choice as approaches which encourage competition between schools. It is important as it has underpinned policy at the World Bank. However, Samoff (1996) has presented a powerful critique where he describes the theory as narrow, limiting and instrumental, and failing to acknowledge the broader processes of education, in particular socialisation. Samoff's arguments against Human Capital theory remain convincing, and align more closely with my own views.

Critical Cultural Political Economy of Education (CCPEE): Robertson and Dale (2015) have suggested that the main theories of globalisation (WCT and WSA) offer only partial insights as they privilege economic and political influences over cultural influences or vice versa. They have drawn on critical theory to present the CCPEE theory which seeks to draw together all the different strands of analysis. This is a complex approach. Their analysis is significant in valuing critique as a basis for social change in itself but is not directly relevant to this research.

Context and discourse: Schriewer, a key author in comparative education, has argued for a context-specific vision informed by discourse (2003). In particular he has suggested that universal models fan out into multiform patterns as they interact with 'academic cultures, context bound social meanings, world views shaped by religious beliefs…' (p.273). This approach, informed by earlier thinking on networks, has attractions as it values context and allows for complexity and diversity, and for the multiple meanings which are likely at the interface of different contexts. The theory is drawn from experience in the Global North and would require testing in practice in low-income countries.

Overall none of these theories provides a secure theoretical framework for this enquiry. However consideration of these contributions has highlighted the following important points which will inform the enquiry:

- Literature on WCT remains influential
- There may be multiple meanings at the interface of different contexts
- It is important to acknowledge the strength and influence of under-pinning Western-centric assumptions

2.1.3 External evaluation

Another important global influence for policy borrowing is external evaluation. This section considers two important examples of evaluation which may have provided 'impulses' for policy borrowing: MDGs have required external evaluation of national progress against global targets, while World Bank processes have included evaluation of national development plans funded by international aid.

MDGs

MDG 2 'to achieve universal primary education' (MDG website) was supported by indicators relating to enrolment and retention (Rigg, 2008). There has been concern that the original ambition has become narrower over time (Waage et al, 2010) focussing only on access and retention with limited consideration of quality, equity across disadvantaged groups and educational progression (Miles and Singal, 2010). It is easy to be critical with the benefit of hindsight: the shift of focus to quality and inequality built on considerable improvements in access in response to MDG2 (UNDP).

Moreover, even with the narrower focus, the UNDP evaluation has shown that not all countries have been able to achieve universal primary education: the overall enrolment rate reached 91% in 2015 but there were still 57 million children out of school globally. There were particular challenges in SSA. While the region made significant progress by increasing enrolments from 52% to 80% in 2015, 33 million of the children out of school globally live in SSA, with girls from poor, rural households most likely to fail to access education. In 2011/12 UNDP figures for Ethiopia were 85.4% on enrolments and 52.1% on completions. These figures need to be scrutinised carefully: there are significant gender differences and over-age enrolments (common in Ethiopia) may be included. Also it is not clear how this international data has reflected retention in Ethiopia where the last primary grade is grade 8 rather than grade 5 or 6 (UNICEF). Stepping back from the figures, there is clear physical evidence of progress on enrolments and access in Ethiopia with new primary schools in all areas of the country following an extensive construction programme supported by increases in education budgets from 17.5% in 2009/10 to 25.2% in 2012/13 (UNDP country brief).

In September 2015, seventeen new development goals were agreed by the international community. The SDGs set out new ambitions up to 2030.The new education goal (SDG4) clearly seeks both to address the concerns about the focus in MDG 2 and to build on achievements in access. With a target related to teacher training supported by international cooperation, SDG4 is directly relevant to this enquiry. The SDG agenda is already in place. However the bureaucratic nature of the new processes, suggests that it will be some time before the impact of these new global policy priorities is clearly seen at national and local levels (King and Palmer,2013; Unterhalter and Dorward, 2013). This enquiry is therefore undertaken within the context of policies conceptualised and implemented during the MDG era. This literature suggests that education policy in Ethiopia has been influenced by the MDGs including the associated external evaluation.

World Bank

The World Bank has established processes which embed the MDGs as global aid priorities and require external evaluation of national developments. This section will highlight literature on aspects of this work which may suggest further indications of 'impulses' towards policy borrowing in low-income countries.

Brock-Utne (2007) has commented on the unequal power relationship between the World Bank and an individual donor nation where the World Bank aid agenda proved so influential that donor funding was used to support policies overseas which would be unacceptable at home. This work has drawn attention to the power of the World Bank in relation to a donor country: this power relationship would be even more unequal for recipient countries. During the 1980s and 1990s World Bank aid took the form of loans with conditions intended to support development. Conditionality, influenced by neo-liberal principles (Simon, 2008), introduced structural adjustments, including changes in governance and process. Killick (in Desai and Potter, 2008) has argued that conditionality may have impeded economic reforms by imposing external policy influences and creating dependency. He has suggested that lasting change could only be achieved where it was defined, promoted, lead and championed locally. The main challenge was to achieve ownership by aid recipients so that they would take responsibility for their own development. This analysis is directly relevant to policy borrowing. More recently, the World Bank has introduced partnerships and sector-wide approaches with the intention that recipients should have greater ownership and make key decisions in consultation with donors. However Phillips and Schweisfurth (2014, p.94) have identified the difficulties of establishing equal partnerships between rich, powerful donors and aid recipients. In practice, donors have defined 'good policies' and introduced unfamiliar processes in the

global language, while recipients have tried to second guess donors' requirements. Overall the resulting partnership agreements often seemed little different from conditionality.

These issues impact on the policy environment in Ethiopia which has been a strategic priority for aid since the famines in Tigray in the 1980s prompted response by Bob Geldof and Band Aid. All major donors and aid agencies are represented in the country with total assistance in 2016 reported to be $4074m (OECD website). The most significant donor is the World Bank which had 25 projects in Ethiopia in 2015 with an overall commitment value of $7 bn. The UK is also an important bilateral donor: in 2014/15 DFID spent £289,700 on projects in Ethiopia (DFID website).The amounts and timescales involved show that Ethiopia continues to be heavily dependent on aid, even though the neo-liberal principles of the World Bank may sit uneasily with the culture of a country where the state is dominant and the private sector under-developed. This literature suggests that external evaluations associated with the MDGs and the World Bank have had significant influence in shaping the policy environment and encouraging policy borrowing in Ethiopia.

2.1.4 International views

In addition to globalisation and external evaluation, stage 1 of the adapted model for policy borrowing (Figure 2) suggests international views on education policy as a further global influence which may have created an 'impulse' for policy borrowing. This section reviews literature on international views on school leadership and CPD.

School Leadership

School leadership has developed in importance over the last 20 years and has generated an extensive literature. For this enquiry it is important to identify literature on school leadership which may have informed policy borrowing. This section draws on two respected meta-analyses on school leadership: Leithwood, Harris and Hopkins, Seven Strong Claims about School Leadership, 2008; and a summary of school leadership models prepared by Bush and Glover for the National College of School Leadership, 2014. This literature has been selected because it is based on extensive research, produced by leading thinkers and is broadly reflected in training and practice in England.

Four of the seven claims identified by Leithwood et al appear particularly relevant to discussion of policy borrowing:

Claim 1: School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on student learning. The authors concluded that leadership effects were small but significant,

accounting for 5 – 7% of the differences across schools and 25% of the impact of school-level variables. In summary 'Leadership serves as a catalyst' (2008, p.29) especially for school organisation and pupil learning. The authors recognised that this might be a controversial claim: in fact it has proved significant in reinforcing the role of leadership in school improvement.

Claims 2 and 3: Successful leaders apply similar leadership qualities, including building vision, developing people, redesigning the organisation and managing teaching and learning. They apply 'contextually sensitive combinations' (p.31) of these practices. These claims set clear overall parameters on the expected leadership tasks while also acknowledging the importance of context.

Claim 4: Leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly through their influence on staff and working conditions.

These ideas, which reinforce the links between school leadership and student achievement, have proved influential in England where headteachers enjoy extensive delegated authority. In spite of the focus on student learning and context, it is less clear how they would apply in countries with different expectations of school leadership.

Bush and Glover (2014) have produced a useful summary of models of school leadership. Like Leithwood et al, they believed school leadership was important as it could help improve student learning. They defined leadership as a process of influence

> 'Successful leaders develop a vision….articulate their vision …..and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision.' (p.554)

The importance of this focus on influence has been reinforced for this enquiry on CPD by Robinson (2007) who showed that school leadership had the greatest impact on student achievement where leaders were directly involved in staff development.

Bush and Glover (2014) noted that definitions of leadership had changed from 'education administration' to 'education management' and 'education leadership' (Gunter, 2004 quoted p.554). They explored the following different leadership styles:

Instructional or learning-centred leadership focussed on support for teaching and learning. This approach has become known as leadership for learning. It has been criticised as concentrating on teaching and the role of the headteacher.

Managerial leadership focussed on functions, tasks and behaviours. Although effective management was important there was a danger that efficiency for its own sake might become more important than teaching and learning.

Transformational leadership focussed on the processes leaders used to influence school outcomes. These included values and vision as identified in Bush and Glover's definition.

This model was probably closest to expectations of school leadership in England. However Bush and Glover were concerned about the possible imposition of values, and the capacity of headteachers to implement change.
This literature has become well established in England and may therefore have informed policy on school leadership borrowed from England.

CPD

The significance of CPD is reflected in SDG 4 and also in the EFA Global Monitoring Report (2013/4) which strongly emphasised the link between good teachers and student learning and stated 'unlocking their (teachers') potential is essential to enhancing the quality of learning' (p.3).The report presented education as the key catalyst for development but argued that there was a 'global learning crisis' (p.31) with insufficient good teachers to support student learning. The strategies suggested to address this crisis included improved teacher education for teachers already in the classroom. This thinking underlines the importance of this enquiry. As there was little experience of CPD in SSA, international views on CPD could provide an 'impulse' to policy borrowing. This section therefore considers literature on CPD, including definitions, models, links with reform and characteristics of effective CPD.

Definitions

In spite of the increasing importance of training, development and learning for teachers, researchers have found it difficult to present clear definitions of CPD which is a broad, evolving concept and may differ depending on time, context and the perspective for analysis. Friedman and Phillips write about 'an ambiguous concept' with 'confusion regarding its definition and purpose' (2004, p.361). As a further complication, the process of evolution has created different titles primarily conceptualised in the Global North. These include: in-service training, INSET (in-service education and training), professional development, CPD and professional learning. These labels represent a spectrum of priorities and approaches. However the core elements focus on the need to enhance the knowledge, skills and understanding of teachers already working in the classroom in order to support the learning and achievement of their students. This enquiry uses CPD as an umbrella term for teacher education including in-service training and professional development and learning. It is however important to take account of Guest's concern

> 'We all think we know what the words ('continuing' 'professional' and 'development') mean until we come to define them.' (2000, quoted by Friedman and Phillips, 2004, p.363)

Models for CPD

The breadth of CPD is illustrated by the wide range of claims and delivery models. Friedman and Phillips (2004) reviewed literature promoting CPD from professional associations and identified an extensive list of claims but 'no single concept of CPD which is widely accepted' (p.363). Not unexpectedly given the sources, key messages concerned accountability and professionalism with a shift of focus from technical skills towards individual autonomy and external comparability.

Work by Madden and Mitchell (1993, referenced by Friedman and Phillips, 2004, p.363) identified two broad models for CPD: sanctions, which were compulsory, measured by inputs and focussed on updating technical knowledge, and benefits, which were voluntary, individual and focussed on outputs. In practice, this dichotomy may be over-stated with more recent literature acknowledging elements from both approaches. In key work on CPD models, Kennedy (2005) identified nine models for CPD grouped on a spectrum from transmission (including training and cascade) through transition (standards-based, coaching, community of practice) to transformative (action research, transformative practice). She has drawn a clear distinction between training, described as skill-based delivered by experts off-site and decontextualized from the classroom, and transformative, which integrated elements of training and community of practice to increase teachers' capacity for professional autonomy. This distinction has been aligned with different delivery modes varying from external courses to continuing school-based learning. Reviewing her own work in 2014, Kennedy suggested that the models at the ends of the spectrum might represent different underlying purposes, ranging from enhancing specific teaching skills to the development of capacity for teachers to help shape, promote and critique reform. These different purposes could relate to priorities in different contexts or at different stages of development.

Fraser et al (2007) suggested that successful CPD was likely to include:

- On and off site
- Teachers actively involved especially in setting the agenda
- Collaborative and interactional approaches
- A context of school development

Transformational learning could be encouraged by formal and informal planned opportunities where teachers felt ownership and some scope for control.

These models underline the scope of CPD. Some approaches, in particular transmission, are well established globally. Others, such as transformative, are less familiar and may be associated with different contexts and phases of development. Overall the variety of models in the literature could be helpful for policy borrowing.

CPD and change

The literature has identified close links between CPD and education reform. Fullan and Miles (1992) identified seven propositions for success in reform which include local capacity building to support high levels of personal and organisational problem-solving. Overall, they have presented teachers as actively engaged and critical to success in the change process with teacher training as one of the components of success. In the same way Riley (2000) has suggested that 'capacity building and opportunities for professional learning will be important for success' (p.35) in school level delivery of national reform in England.

This literature has identified teachers and teachers' development as central to change and reform. This focus on change is reflected in the ambitions for teachers' CPD. Guskey (2002) identified the three main goals of CPD as 'change in classroom practices of teachers, changes in their attitudes and beliefs, changes in the learning outcomes of students' (p.383). Day (2004, quoted by Mitchell, 2013, p.390) has defined professional development as 'the process by which … teachers' review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents …'. The underlying assumption is that CPD should develop teachers' skills to support personal and organisational change and reform.

Some authors have identified a mismatch between the requirements of education reform and the CPD available to support teachers through the changes. Sykes (1996) has highlighted the inadequacy of the 'one-shot workshop' (p.465) and suggested that professional communities of learning, adopting processes of reflection and inquiry, may be the best way to address problems of practice associated with reform. Little (1993) identified the following six principles to help shape CPD to support teachers:

- Meaningful engagement with ideas, materials and colleagues
- Taking explicit account of context and teaching experience
- Providing opportunities for informed dissent
- Placing classroom practice in a wider context
- Employing inquiry techniques and perspectives
- Ensuring a balance between the interests of individuals and institutions

Taken together Little's principles reflect the importance of critical thinking and context. They point away from external training programmes and towards collaborative approaches such as teacher networking and school to school links. There is a clear relationship with Kennedy's transformative approaches such as communities of practice and action research. Little has sought to establish coherent links between change and reform, the teachers' role and the nature of the CPD required. However it is not clear that these principles have been translated into the policy and practice likely to inform policy borrowing.

Effective CPD

The literature identifies a number of conditions for effective CPD including strong content, active learning and professional communication (Birman et al, 2000), sufficient time and support, with reduced focus on content and testing (Abadiano and Turner, 2004) and a strong school-wide professional community (King and Newman, 2001). In 2002 Guskey argued that CPD should take greater account of how teachers learn and recognise that teachers are most likely to be motivated by practical ideas which related directly to classroom practice and improving student outcomes. He suggested that teacher learning is cyclical with changes in teachers' attitudes and approaches taking place only after they have seen evidence of improved student learning. This aligns with my own experience where teachers are often sceptical about the extent to which expert theory can work with their students. This insight suggests that school-based, teacher-lead CPD was likely to have the greatest chance of success. This view has been reinforced by more recent research. In 2017, Armour et al argued that effective CPD needed to focus on the learning process, prioritise context and nurture career-long professional growth. In research on teacher motivation in CPD, Appova and Arbaugh (2018) noted that many teachers in the US and OECD countries still reported attending short-term sessions and workshops which did not meet their learning needs. Their research identified seven categories of teacher motivation of which the most important were to influence students and their learning and to learn with other teachers. Focus on these motivations suggested that there needed to be more opportunities for job-embedded, small-scale, content-specific, collaborative learning focussed on quality. This recent work suggests that, in spite of extensive research and considerable agreement on what does and does not work, teacher-lead approaches to CPD have still not replaced traditional but largely ineffective approaches in the Global North.

CPD Summary

This section sets out international views on CPD which may have influenced policy borrowing. There is agreement on the complexity of CPD, the barriers to success and the principles and conditions which could allow for more effective CPD to better equip teachers for educational change and reform. In spite of this agreement provision has continued to focus on external workshops. There would therefore appear to be something of a mismatch between the opportunities available to teachers and what the literature says about the approaches most likely to enhance teacher learning. It will always be difficult to identify best practice when change is underway and local conditions create variability. However, there would appear to be a clear need to achieve closer alignment between the approaches used to improve teaching and learning and the development opportunities offered to teachers. The models provided by Kennedy, on different approaches to CPD, and particularly by Guskey, on achieving change in teachers' practice, are important. This literature shows that CPD is not always a clear concept but may include different models and approaches to change and improvement. This lack of clarity may make CPD a difficult area for policy borrowing.

Summary: Stage 1

Stage 1 of Figure 2 (page 22) has considered global influences which may encourage policy borrowing comprising globalisation, World Cultural theory, external evaluations and international views on school leadership and CPD. Philips and Ochs also identified the impulse of 'externalising potential' an assessment of the potential sources for policy borrowing taking account of 'fit' in context and process.. This 'externalising potential' has not been considered here given the strength of the global influences. Local context is important in subsequent stages of this analysis.

2.2 Regional and national influences

Stage 2 in the Phillips and Ochs model for analysing policy borrowing was 'decision'. The adapted model (Figure 2) recognised that scope for independent national decision on policy borrowing was reduced by the strength of the global influences and therefore identified regional and national influences which would determine the likely success of any borrowed policy in its new setting. This section considers the following influences: approaches to school leadership, teaching methodology and teacher education in the Global South.

2.2.1 School leadership

Through policy borrowing, global approaches to school leadership may be transferred to countries with significantly different contexts, cultures and expectations. This section will present literature on school leadership models in the Global South including SSA to point up the contrast with international views and the challenges which may result from policy borrowing. The literature is comparatively limited. This review will draw on a useful meta-analysis of papers published between 1992 and 2002 by Oplatka (2004) focussing on the principalship in developing countries, together with more recent local studies on school leadership in SSA, including Ethiopia.

Overview

Oplatka noted the extensive literature on leadership in the Global North but focussed his analysis on leadership in different contexts. Even with a broad definition of developing countries, he identified only 25 papers covering 18 countries, including six in Africa. This indicates a disappointing lack of critical analysis during the period of his review. Nonetheless Oplatka's analysis identifies distinguishing characteristics of school leadership in these countries which are directly relevant to this enquiry.

Overall Oplatka concluded that, in developing countries 'principals' power is severely limited by the rules of the system' which encouraged 'a more administrative function, lack of innovation and pro-active management …' (pp.430-1).His review suggested that principals had relatively little significance or power with no responsibility for teaching quality or student achievement. They managed the implementation of externally imposed change rather than acting as change agents in their own right. Given their limited autonomy and the requirement to obey their superiors, principals tended to concentrate on routine management: in Africa, they were likely to be preoccupied with provision of basic needs, including food, adequate buildings and funding, rather than with teaching quality.

Oplatka's work could be improved by greater differentiation between different levels of income and development and would benefit from updating. Nonetheless this review has clearly identified expectations of school leaders in the Global South which are significantly different from international views (Leithwood et al, 2008; Bush and Glover, 2014) and has acknowledged the challenges of introducing policies focussed on improving teaching into contexts where principals lacked autonomy or agency to introduce change. This research therefore provides a useful frame of reference for considering the role of school leadership in implementing 'borrowed' policy.

School leadership in Ghana

Oplatka's analysis included relatively few examples of research on school leadership in SSA. Two studies on school leadership in Ghana provide more detail and an opportunity to test Oplatka's conclusions in the region. Both studies analysed the tasks undertaken by Ghanaian headteachers in practice by reference to leadership competency frameworks and expectations developed in England. In both studies, the literature points up the mismatch between the activities undertaken or prioritised by school leaders in Ghana and the expectations of the borrowed frame of reference.

Tensions experienced by Ghanaian headteachers seeking to balance practical pressures with global perceptions of school leadership have been identified by Oduro and MacBeath (2003). Data from 20 primary headteachers in central Ghana provided a granular picture of day to day administrative activities which did not easily align with the parameters of an international leadership competency framework. The authors' overall conclusion suggested that the headteachers 'may be characterised as transactional rather than transformational leaders' (p.452-3). These descriptors of leadership align with Bush and Glover's models (2014) suggesting that this knowledge base was informing activity and research in SSA. These headteachers could be considered as transactional leaders but a less Western-centric conclusion might have questioned the value of assessing them against parameters developed in a different context which did not directly relate to their day to day experience.

Zame et al (2008) also considered school leadership in Ghana by reference to proficiencies drawn from English experience. In survey data from 350 schools, 66% of participants identified 'managing and organizing the school's day to day functions' as the primary leadership proficiency suggesting that they 'perceive their role as that of manager rather than leader' (p. 122).Only 4% mentioned student achievement or staff performance. This research shows that these headteachers were focussed on day to day management tasks rather than teaching quality and student achievement. Overall this literature presents a picture of school leadership which is closely aligned with Oplatka's conclusions. In both cases there was evidence of mismatch when practice in Ghanaian schools was compared with experience from the Global North. These studies exemplify the challenges of applying 'borrowed' policy on school leadership which were anticipated by Oplatka and are important for this enquiry.

School leadership in Ethiopia

There is limited literature on school leadership in Ethiopia. However it is worth looking at what is available in some detail as leadership is an important aspect of policy implementation. This section identifies key issues from work by Workneh (2012) on school management, Fekede et al (2014) on leadership in CPD and Mitchell (2015) on the role of Ethiopian principals in school improvement. Both Fekede and Mitchell compared the activities of Ethiopian principals with global expectations. Their overall conclusions were that principals had limited autonomy and were focussed on non-instructional tasks. This is in line with Oplatka's review and with experience in other schools in SSA.

The contribution of school management to the quality of education in Ethiopia was considered by Workneh (2012) using interview data from the Young Lives school survey. The key issue was the relationship between schools and the district education office or woreda. The survey findings suggested tensions in the relationship reflected in this comment by a primary teacher in Amhara:

> 'Although the rules and regulations do come from the district and the regional level, we face difficulties to implement it at the grassroots level. Even though the rules and regulations are good and correct, we have to take into consideration the community context when we implement it. It is only by becoming more flexible that we are able to improve students' achievements' (quoted on p.10)

This teacher showed clear understanding of power relationships in the Ethiopian education system and was careful to value senior colleagues even while suggesting that they did not understand the local context and could be hindering student achievement. This analysis exposed gaps between the woreda and schools and underlined the limited autonomy at school level. Any analysis of leadership in Ethiopian schools therefore needs to consider both principals and the woreda.

In his analysis of school improvement in Ethiopian schools, Mitchell (2015) considered the roles of principals and woredas and the difficulties created when school improvement programmes, which expected the principal to be a school leader in global terms, were 'implemented mechanistically without adaptation' (p.329). Adaptation is acknowledged as important in policy borrowing (Phillips and Ochs, 2003) but Mitchell has suggested that it played no part in the transfer of school improvement policy to Ethiopia. The programme assumed an international view of the principal's role and had not been adjusted to reflect local practice. In fact the principal was 'a local manager of an administrative unit' (p.330) answerable to the woreda which held responsibility for policy, school budgets and teacher

recruitment. Principals lacked the autonomy and influence to undertake the role of leadership for learning expected in school improvement. This research has therefore identified tensions in the principals' role similar to those experienced in Ghana. However Mitchell suggested that CPD was one area where principals could show leadership. This enquiry should provide evidence of the contribution of school leadership to the implementation of CPD to test Mitchell's analysis on the ground and contribute to knowledge in an area which has generally received 'scant attention' (p.339).

Fekede et al (2014) examined teachers' professional development through a case study involving teachers in three secondary schools. Leadership was identified in the thematic analysis. Their analysis is important as it contributes to the limited available literature on leadership and CPD. They presented a negative picture of school leadership. They reported that principals were unqualified and inexperienced and 'spent much of their time dealing with non-instructional activities'. Principals were unable to lead or support teachers' professional development and were described as 'incompetent professionals who did not possess an adequate profile for the post' (p.82). These conclusions should be treated with caution as Fekede et al were reflecting the views of teachers and did not interview any principals or education officials. The principals in their case study schools were probably assigned to administrative, non-instructional roles in line with local expectations while the researchers were expecting them to provide broader leadership for learning. Fedeke et al may therefore have been identifying similar tensions to those reported by Workneh and Mitchell which also align with experience in Ghana.

Summary on school leadership

This review of literature on school leadership, including research on leadership in Ghana and Ethiopia, has identified expectations of principals which were significantly different from those in the international literature. In particular principals were preoccupied with administrative, non-instructional tasks rather than with teaching quality and student achievement. They also lacked autonomy within the broader education system. The literature showed that these different expectations could create tensions when 'borrowed' policies were introduced which assumed greater scope for school leadership to contribute to leadership for learning in line with global approaches. This literature is particularly important given the limited information on educational leadership in Ethiopia and the likelihood that any borrowed policy would make similar assumptions about leadership.

2.2.2 Teaching methodology

Another local influence relevant to this enquiry relates to teaching methodology. This section reviews literature on implementation of borrowed policies for learner centred teaching which reflect experience from the Global North but have proved unfamiliar and difficult in the Global South, including Ethiopia.

Learner-centred education in low-income countries

Schweisfurth (2011) has provided a valuable overview of research into learner-centred education (lce) in 56 different countries, including 34 in Africa. Schweisfurth noted that few researchers have explicitly defined learner-centred education focussing instead on the change away from 'teacher centred' 'didactic' 'frontal' and 'rote learning' (p.426).The overall conclusion from this meta-analysis was negative: 'the history of the implementation of lce in different contexts is riddled with stories of failures grand and small' (p.425). Schweisfurth also considered barriers to success. These included over-ambitious education reform, limited resources, interactions of divergent cultures, and issues of power and agency during implementation. To achieve greater success, she suggested that learner-centred education needed to be mediated, contextualised or reconceptualised. This analysis clearly identified the significant challenges of introducing 'borrowed' teaching methodology and acknowledged the importance of context.

An example of contextualisation was presented by Thompson (2013) who reported on a small scale teacher training project on learner-centred education in Nigeria. Like Schweisfurth he noted the lack of any clear definitions and suggested that it was not helpful to polarise 'teacher and subject centred' and 'child centred' especially as

> 'The idea that all western approaches to schooling are consistently learner centred and that all African approaches are always transmissive would be a caricature.'(p.50)

This research recognised that training appropriate in England might need mediation and cultural translation in Africa. It did not question the 'translatability' of student centred approaches in principle but suggested that it was most likely to be successful if introduced in the private sector and then diffused to the public sector. This conclusion is open to criticism and is not directly relevant to this enquiry. However Thompson's research is interesting as it reinforces Schweisfurth's overview by presenting a personal and

professional journey from simple experience transfer to greater understanding of the complexity of policy borrowing.

Teaching methodology in Ethiopia

Two articles provide information on the experience of student-centred education in Ethiopian primary schools: Derebssa (2006) analysed questionnaire data from 120 teachers and 600 students in 12 schools, while Frost and Little (2014) undertook a large scale quantitative analysis of observations of 5088 students in 776 mathematics classes in 124 schools. In spite of the differences in scale and research environment, both studies reflect difficulties in implementing student-centred education which align with Schweisfurth's conclusion.

Unlike other writers, Derebssa has provided a definition of student-centred education: for him the approaches were strategies to 'maximize interaction' promoted through 'small group work, research based projects, case studies, discussions, role play, field trips..' (p.130). He recognised the difficulty of copying strategies from a different society and also suggested that traditional church school approaches, which emphasised obedience and punished independent initiative, could present particular challenges for the introduction of student-centred teaching and learning strategies in Ethiopia. This suggestion aligns with work by Guthrie who has argued that the repeated failure of student-centred approaches in Papua New Guinea was due to the conflict with culturally embedded formalistic approaches to teaching (Guthrie, 2012).

Derebssa's data showed little support for student-centred active learning. Most students believed the lecture method was best suited to the curriculum and their background, while both teachers and students believed that the students' role in class was to listen and take notes. In addition most participants believed that student-centred approaches would limit students' access to teachers' knowledge. These outcomes are not surprising as they reflected experience with established teacher centred approaches. Derebssa concluded that successful use of student-centred education would require significant changes in teacher training, curriculum, assessment and learning resources. He recommended 'partnership approaches' (p.138) combining direct instruction, guided practice and independent learning as a practical option for increasing student-centred education in Ethiopian classrooms. This recommendation acknowledged the importance of contextualised approaches identified by Schweisfurth and also suggested the need for joint working where 'borrowed' policies were introduced.

Frost and Little identified a significant mismatch between the government target of 30% of class time to be spent on student-centred activities, and the actual experience observed in maths classes where student-centred activities accounted for only 10.7% of class time. They found that student-centred methods were more likely in Grades 1 – 4 and most likely with female teachers. Overall they concluded that teacher qualifications were likely to be a critical factor in promoting student-centred activity. This literature does not question the appropriateness of the government target or its likely contribution to student achievement. However the conclusion is important for this enquiry in establishing a link between teacher training and student-centred activity.

This literature has identified the challenges of introducing student-centred learning in Ethiopia. In addition to the barriers identified by Schweisfurth, Derebssa has drawn attention to potential difficulties associated with the impact of the Ethiopian societal context which endorsed traditional approaches to teaching and learning.

2.2.3 Teacher Education

In addition to school leadership and teaching methodology, regional and national approaches to teacher education could be important in determining the likely success of a borrowed CPD policy. This section reviews literature on teacher education in SSA. Literature is relatively limited and draws heavily on experience from the Global North.

Teacher education in SSA

Experience of teacher education in SSA has been strongly influenced by the TESSA project which involves18 teacher training institutions in nine countries working with the UK Open University to improve the quality of classroom practice and resources in primary schools (TESSA website). Ethiopia is not part of TESSA but literature from the project provides information on teacher education in East Africa which is relevant to this enquiry.

Thakrar et al (2009) have identified challenges for teachers which are common across the participating SSA countries. Pressure to fill teaching vacancies caused by increasing student enrolment has led to widespread employment of unqualified and under-qualified teachers and has raised concerns about the quality of teaching and learning. Throughout SSA, teachers were working with large classes in difficult conditions with few resources. They often had not intended to be teachers but had responded to immediate community and employment pressures and would move when opportunities were available from rural to urban schools, and to other employment sectors. Thakrar et al have presented a convincing analysis of the challenges of teaching in East Africa and the need for improved

teacher education. However their recommended solution depended on partnership relationships and technical facilities which were not available in Ethiopia.

Hardman et al (2011) analysed TESSA projects in three East African countries to identify challenges and successful practice. They recognised the need 'to combine the culturally or nationally unique with what is universal in classroom pedagogy' (p.670) if international experience was to be successfully embedded. Problems with the available teacher INSET included:

- poor quality and not transferable to the classroom
- little follow-up
- only delivered in urban areas;
- confusion between certificate upgrading and professional development

Based on this analysis, Hardman et al suggested that effective INSET in East Africa should be:

- Systematic and longer term
- Mainly school-based
- Multi-mode including distance learning and work in clusters
- Aligned with the culture, education policies and school conditions

This analysis is directly relevant to this enquiry which should provide an opportunity to establish the extent and relevance of these approaches in Ethiopia including alignment with the local culture and context.

Teacher education in Ethiopia

Literature on teacher education in Ethiopia includes reports on two aid-funded projects which introduced student-centred teaching methodology. In both cases the intention was to develop teachers' understanding by first training the college lecturers responsible for pre-service teacher education. Both projects reflected international experience and assumed that a 'training the trainers' approach would impact on teaching methodology in classrooms.

In 2012 the MOE reported on the impact of the national Higher Diploma Programme (HDP) for teacher educators introduced by VSO in 2003 to provide practical skills in active teaching methods. The HDP was compulsory for teacher educators and had also been delivered to other college lecturers. However the key finding of the impact study was that changes in practice following the HDP were short-lived. Teacher educators used HDP

approaches after graduating from the programme but then reverted to traditional teacher-centred methods. The study did not include detailed assessment of the impact on student teachers trained by HDP graduates but the authors concluded 'Very few teacher educators present a positive role model to trainee teachers.' (p. 42).

A USAID project, analysed by Barnes et al (2018), worked with 198 teacher educators in 36 CTEs over two years supporting the introduction of student-centred approaches to teaching reading and writing. The teacher educators reported that they understood and liked the approaches and were beginning to use them in their classes. However Barnes et al identified significant barriers to implementation including limited resources, large classes and, in particular, time where lecturers managed constraints by reverting to teacher-centred approaches. In conclusion, Barnes et al found no connections between training teacher educators and student teacher outcomes. Any benefit for the student teachers and particularly for students in their classrooms was therefore unclear.

In both projects, changes were short-lived with limited impact on classroom practice. This literature clearly indicates the difficulties of embedding student centred methods drawn from international experience into teacher education, and teaching practice in Ethiopia. This is particularly clear in the case of the HDP which was long-running and endorsed by MOE. The impact study did not analysis the reasons for the failure to sustain active learning approaches: these may have mirrored the barriers identified by Schweisfurth (2011) and Barnes (2018) against a background of strongly embedded teacher centred methods (Derebssa, 2006). This literature on the difficulties in changing the professional practice of teacher educators through the HDP provides a compelling example of the challenges of teacher education based on international approaches. This is directly relevant to this enquiry which will examine implementation of a 'borrowed' CPD policy.

Summary: Stage 2

This literature on Stage 2 of the adapted model in Figure 2 has considered regional and national influences which may impact on the implementation of the CPD Framework. The literature shows that the expectations of school leadership in SSA were significantly different from those in the Global North while attempts to introduce 'borrowed' student centred teaching methodologies, either directly or through teacher training, had been largely unsuccessful. The literature points up the tensions where policy informed by international views was introduced without adaptation into contexts with significantly different practice and expectations. This enquiry focusses on a 'borrowed' policy which is also informed by international views and at variance with local expectations. The literature

therefore suggests that successful implementation of the CPD Framework was likely to prove challenging.

2.3 Implementation (Stage 3)

This section considers literature on implementation of borrowed policy. This is Stage 3 in both policy borrowing models (Figures 1 and 2). The interpretation of implementation is slightly different in the two models. Phillips and Ochs considered the complete process of implementation while the adapted model focusses on factors influencing early implementation with broader issues of adaptation and context considered at Stage 4. Implementation is central to this enquiry but there are significant gaps in the literature. This section reviews literature on examples of implementation in Africa and cascade training. The enquiry would have benefitted from more information on implementation.

Examples of implementation

This section considers work by Steyn (2010) on CPD policy in South Africa, and by Hasler et al (2014) and O'Sullivan (2002) on introducing aspects of interactive teaching in Zambia and Namibia.

Research on implementation of the CPD component of the national policy for teacher education in South Africa is directly relevant to this enquiry. Steyn (2010) used data from four schools to identify approaches which could encourage or inhibit CPD. The recommendations to support CPD implementation were as follows:

- Nurture commitment to CPD so that teachers own their development
- Ensure collaboration between leaders and teachers
- Provide incentives for CPD
- Provide effective CPD training

Research on programmes to support the introduction of student-centred teaching was undertaken in Zambia and Namibia. In Zambia, research findings identified the following strategies to support school-based CPD:

- Professional dialogue including quality conversations
- Cultural sensitivity
- Peer learning

This was a small sample of four teachers in two schools with outcomes drawn from a local programme rather than a national policy. However the focus on cultural sensitivity and teachers working together is relevant to this enquiry (Hasler et al, 2014).

In Namibia, a programme to develop teachers' reflective practice was part of the national education reform. As a teacher trainer, O'Sullivan (2002) adopted an action research model with four cycles. The initial findings suggested that teachers were unfamiliar with reflective practice, and lacked professional foundations. O'Sullivan used intensive questioning, reinforcement and observation to provide a structured approach which developed teachers' skills and confidence in reflection. The study recommended that INSET providers should take careful account of teachers' professional capacities and of 'micro-realities' (p.537) and should recognise that changes in practice for poorly qualified teachers would require long-term training and follow-up. This research is relevant to this enquiry: it was concerned with policy implementation and emphasised the importance of working from teachers' start-points. In addition, it recognised that changes in teachers' practice were likely to require contextualisation and considerable time.

This literature indicates approaches to support policy implementation. It also draws attention to the limited work on policy implementation.

Cascade training

Training should be an important part of policy implementation (Steyn, 2010). In Africa, cascade training has been widely used to pass information on new policy down the education hierarchy. The system has provided the potential for training large numbers quickly and cheaply. However the disadvantages, identified by McDevitt (1998), have been generally acknowledged. These included:

- Top-down transmission with no opportunity for feedback
- Information misrepresented by trainers at lower levels
- Scope for adjustment was limited in a 'one size fits all' approach
- Imposed training failed to secure teachers' commitment to change

Cascade training was central to PRISM (Primary School Management project) in Kenya where over 16,000 primary Headteachers were trained by regional trainers and zonal inspectors (Crossley et al, 2005). To help address the problems, a strengthened cascade model was devised with information flows 'rippling back and forth' (Juma, 2002 quoted in Crossley et al, 2005, p.65). In a small-scale study in Cameroon, Lange (2014) concluded that cascade training could be useful for in-service training providing the following elements were included:

- Ongoing follow-up and supervision
- Cascade and school-based training should be combined

- Training should be supported by regular central workshops for all participants

This literature suggests that experience with cascade training has been mixed. Reliance on traditional cascade training could therefore present barriers to the effective implementation of borrowed policy.

Summary (Stage3)

Implementation is central to this enquiry. This review has underlined significant gaps in the available literature on implementing borrowed policy in Africa. Nonetheless there are a number of findings which are directly relevant to this enquiry. The literature showed that it was important for teachers to develop commitment and own CPD, and to work together to enhance their skills. Effective training was also important and probably needed to extend beyond cascade training. Emphasis on the need for cultural sensitivity and contextualisation of borrowed policy is particularly relevant for this enquiry.

2.4 Internalisation (Stage 4)

Stage 4 of the adapted model in Figure 2 concerns the processes for embedding borrowed policy in its new setting. For Phillips and Ochs (2003) internalisation involved adaptation of the policy and of the environment. As the CPD Framework was national policy there were limited opportunities for adaptation at policy level and local context was more likely to affect successful internalisation. This section therefore reviews literature on context, including culture, in policy borrowing including specific research projects (O'Sullivan, 2002; Ridley, 2011) and consideration of the broader implications of context (Dimmock and Walker, 2000; Crossley, 2008, 2010 and 2012). This literature emphasises the importance of context sensitivity.

Aspects of O'Sullivan's work with primary teachers in Namibia have been considered at Stage 3. This research is also relevant here as it identified the impact of different learning and societal contexts on introducing borrowed policy. In the Global North active approaches to knowledge were usual with students learning to 'use it, transform it and teach it' (p.525) and teachers regarded as producers rather than recipients of knowledge. However in Namibia teachers were not encouraged 'to ask questions publicly, to criticise or to develop and express their own experience and ideas' and 'were uncomfortable with an approach to training which focussed on and valued their own experience and ideas' (p.531). This experience lead O'Sullivan to suggest that teaching and learning approaches conceptualised in the Global North might not be appropriate in countries where the under-pinning professional assumptions, pre-conditions and capabilities were absent.

This research focussed on a specific teacher training programme rather than a national policy but it is relevant to this enquiry as it shows the importance of context in policy borrowing at both Stage 3 (implementation) and Stage 4 (internalisation). Namibia was keen to introduce teaching approaches which were considered best practice in global terms. External experts supporting the change process (Ebbutt and Elliott, 1998) identified the need for adaptation to allow approaches reflecting global assumptions to be successfully transferred (Thompson, 2013). O'Sullivan facilitated the process of adaptation but she had reservations about the likely success where both society expectations and teachers' professional capacity were so different. This literature has underlined the importance of societal and educational context and the importance of establishing fit between imported and home approaches in practice.

The impact of context was also important in developing research capacity at the University of Addis Ababa. Ridley (2011) identified mismatches between research best-practice seen from a UK perspective and Ethiopian societal culture which led her to question whether research culture could be transferred between countries. Ridley found that Ethiopian students were reticent and reluctant to express opinions or share information; they found criticality and self -criticism difficult; and there was a lack of mutual respect which limited collaborative and group work. Ridley summarised the behaviour of Ethiopian students as follows: 'cultural norms and political contexts tend to encourage silence and caution rather than critique and argument even in academic settings' (p.285). Ridley's work was based in a university but it identified attitudes and behaviours which formed part of Ethiopian culture and context. The research has therefore indicated likely challenges, both in successfully transferring education policy and practice, and in undertaking research in Ethiopia. This enquiry needs to take careful account of local context and culture, being particularly sensitive to their embeddedness both in the case study schools and in the researcher's analytical lens.

Another significant issue which emerges from the literature is the impact of societal culture on policy borrowing Dimmock and Walker (2000) defined societal culture as 'those enduring sets of values, beliefs and practices that distinguish one group of people from another' (p.304) and aligned it with local economic, political and religious conditions. They clearly identified the challenges of policy borrowing for receiving countries

> 'Importing policy reforms formulated elsewhere under different economic, political and cultural conditions presents challenges for the new host cultures'
>
> 'Theories, ideas and practices derived in one social setting should not be assumed valid in other …. contexts.' (p. 307)

They argued that societal culture could act as a filter in determining whether global practices would be adopted, adapted or rejected. They also suggested that without this contextual filter, there were likely to be problems in implementation. Their work focussed on Chinese culture. However the central issue, tensions where policy developed in the Global North was introduced into different cultural settings, is directly relevant to this enquiry as the CPD Framework was not subject to any contextual filter.

The need to give greater attention to contextual factors has been strongly emphasised by Crossley (2008, 2010) who has suggested that context should be central to all comparative education research. He has argued that more effective 'bridging of cultures and traditions' (2008, p.319) in comparative education could enhance awareness of context and culture and contribute to improved international understanding and global development. This 'bridging thesis' would encourage research across different disciplines, policy and practice and at macro and micro levels. It would also encourage the use of international research teams, including policy-makers, practitioners, researchers, insiders and outsiders, and the development of cross-cultural research skills in order to improve context sensitivity.

Crossley has also drawn on a wide evidence base to identify problems resulting from context insensitivity (2010). These included the uncritical transfer of policy and practice where 'international agencies and agendas have dominated national education policy formulation and implementation at the expense of local input and appropriate sensitivity to contextual factors' (p.423). Context insensitivity could result in implementation failures where strategies were not suited to local realities and local consultation was inadequate. In addition Crossley highlighted the dangers of research approaches which did not recognise contextual and cultural difference and the importance of drawing on local research to ensure awareness of local contexts including schools. These arguments, emphasising the importance of context sensitivity and the problems of context insensitivity particularly for implementation, are directly relevant to this enquiry. Experience of CPD in SSA was largely drawn from the Global North. The complexity of CPD and the lack of clear definitions could present problems for policy borrowing: it was also important to provide opportunities for local contextualisation.

Summary: Stage 4

This section has reviewed literature on context, including societal culture, as the critical determinant in securing successful internalisation of borrowed policy. The importance of context has been shown in the difficulties, identified by all these authors, in transferring policies developed in one context without recognising the need for contextualisation in the

new setting. These difficulties may be accentuated when the context informing policies from the Global North is 'taken-for-granted' so that there is little understanding of the significance of the differences involved. This is a critical issue affecting the likely success of all policy borrowing and of particular importance in policy implementation. Phillips and Ochs (2003) acknowledged the general importance of context. However this review, shaped by a version of their model adapted for analysing policy borrowing in the Global South, has referenced context at all stages. Stage 4 has focussed on literature on context but issues of context have also emerged in reviewing approaches to school leadership and teaching methodology in Stage 2 and to implementation in Stage 3.This emphasises the central importance of context for this enquiry which analyses how a policy based on CPD experience in England was being implemented in rural primary schools in northern Ethiopia. The context for policy implementation in the Global South was significantly different in all respects from the context which informed the borrowed policy from the Global North. Context and context sensitivity will therefore be of central importance to all aspects of this enquiry, including researcher positioning and analysis.

3. Conceptual framework and RQs

This chapter has reviewed literature relevant to this enquiry in four stages based on a model for policy borrowing, devised by Phillips and Ochs (2003) and adapted for current conditions in SSA (Figure 2). This adapted model has facilitated consideration of literature on global, regional and national influences, implementation and internalisation. The concept of policy borrowing has therefore underpinned this review while the key concept to emerge from the review is context. The two concepts of policy borrowing and context, which have been critical throughout the literature review, will therefore frame this research enquiry which analyses implementation of a borrowed policy, the CPD Framework in Ethiopia. Policy implementation in rural primary schools in northern Ethiopia will be influenced by the national and educational context which informs the work of the schools and contrasts with the contextual assumptions in the borrowed policy. Focus on context will therefore require sensitivity to the impact of context, including culture, in the schools, in the Framework as an example of policy borrowing and in the positioning of the researcher.

The research questions which emerge from the literature review are

- To what extent does current practice in Ethiopian schools align with CPD policy?
- What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework?
- How can this analysis inform successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in future?

The conceptual framework of policy borrowing and context and the RQs will inform the rest of this enquiry. The overall context for the enquiry is presented in Chapter 3 with research methodology, methods and data collection in Chapter 4, findings and discussion in Chapters 5 and 6 and implications of the enquiry in Chapter 7.

Chapter 3: Context

Context is an underpinning concept for this enquiry. This chapter sets out the overall context for the enquiry comprising the national context for Ethiopia, and its education system, including CPD, together with the implications of this context for research.

1. Ethiopia

This section presents aspects of the political and economic national context which impact on this enquiry.

Ethiopia is a land-locked country located in East Africa north of the equator. The maps (from WorldAtlas) show its position in Africa and the cities of Addis Ababa, Mekele and Bahir Dar which are relevant to this research.

Figure 3: Maps of Ethiopia

Ethiopia is an authoritarian, mainly Christian Orthodox, country with strong traditions. In 1974 the long-serving Emperor Haile Selassie was overthrown by the Marxist Derg which was replaced in 1991 by the current regime led by the EPRDF (Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front). Meles Zenawi, a former rebel from Tigray, was Prime Minister until his death in 2012 and was succeeded by his Deputy who resigned in February 2018. The new Prime Minister, Abiy Ahmed, from Oromia region, has inherited ethnic tensions, a state of emergency and high expectations of reform. In his inaugural speech in April 2018 he identified the following problems: 'lack of a developed democratic

culture, deep-rooted poverty, organised corruption and bureaucratic inefficiencies and lack of good governance' and underlined the critical significance of education in addressing them: 'we believe the key solution is to be found in education and only in education..' (Andrew DeCort analysis, April 2018). This commitment to education indicates the relevance of this enquiry which analyses CPD policy as a contribution to quality education.

The size and profile of the population in Ethiopia underlines the importance of education. The population has increased rapidly in recent years and is still growing at 2.6%pa (MOE, ESDPV, 2015). Family size has not yet decreased as has happened in other African countries: the UNDP country report of 2012 identified total fertility rates across the country which varied between 1.5 and 7.1. Figures on the country's total population vary: the current MOE education plan quoted 95m (ESDP V, 2015) while IndexMundi, 2017, suggested 105m. In April 2018 the BBC country profile described the population as the second largest in Africa (BBC website). The population is a young one with 43.5% under 14 and 65.5% under 25. These figures help to explain the importance of education and in particular any approaches which might contribute to improved quality and achievement.

Ethiopia's economic development sets the overall context for the country's education system with the current education plans contributing to government ambitions to be a middle income country by 2025 (ESDP V, MOE). Although the economy has been growing rapidly, poverty levels remain significant and impact on educational provision especially in rural areas.

In 2013/14 the African Development Bank (ADB website) recorded eleven consecutive years of growth around 10% pa with similar growth expected to continue. This compared with a growth rate for SSA of 4.9% (World Bank website). The International Monetary Fund has ranked Ethiopia as among the five fastest growing economies in the world (ADB). However, only 19% of the population live in urban areas, and the economy is heavily dependent on rain-fed subsistence agriculture, growing primary commodities, especially coffee. Agriculture remains vulnerable to drought. Droughts in 2015 and 2016 meant that international food aid was again required in Northern Ethiopia (DFID website). These continuing problems with food security set recent economic progress in context.

In 2011, the Human Development Index (HDI) ranked Ethiopia at 174 out of 188 countries world-wide: Ethiopians celebrated because they were no longer in the bottom 10. The HDI combines data on life expectancy, education and income to allow comparison of development in different countries. In 2011 Ethiopian figures were: life expectancy at birth of 64.1 years, 8.5 expected years of schooling and GNI PPP (gross national income per capita converted into purchasing power parity) of $1428 giving an aggregate measure of

0.412. The income figure would be considerably lower without the PPP adjustment: UNICEF data for 2012 reported $410. The education component of the HDI is particularly relevant to this enquiry. In 2011, the mean number of years of primary education was 1.5 in contrast to the expected figure of 8.5. If the expected figure could be translated into reality, it would mean a full primary education for every child in line with MDG2. The HDI has recorded further progress since 2011 but at a slower rate. In 2017 the HDI still ranked Ethiopia at 174 with an index of 0.448 (compared with 0.523 for Sub-Saharan Africa and 0.909 for the UK) with life expectancy of 64.6 years and 2.3 mean years of schooling. This shows that progress is in the right direction but it is slow and includes significant variations across the country. Poverty levels remain significant in Ethiopia. The international poverty line is set at $1.25 a day. The percentage of the population living at this level was reported at 38.7 in 2005 declining to 29.6 in 2011 and estimated at 26.0 in 2013 (UNDP). In 2010 MOE noted that 30% of the population was living in extreme poverty (ESDP V). Poverty therefore continues to be a major problem and directly impacts on education: school resources are limited and teachers are poorly paid, but the new Prime Minister has identified education as the key to future development.

This enquiry analyses implementation of borrowed education policy in a low-income country in SSA with a young population and a new leader committed to education. This section is important as it highlights the differences between the Global North context which informed the CPD Framework and the environment for implementing the policy. In addition it emphasises the importance of successful implementation of a policy which could help improve education and support further national development.

2. Education

This enquiry considers implementation of national policy at school level. This section introduces aspects of the education system.

Education in Ethiopia is a national system with policy priorities established by MOE. Education priorities were originally identified in the Growth and Transformation Plan, 1994, which included an expectation of student centred, active learning. More recent priorities have been established in a series of Education Sector Development Plans (ESDPs): the plans relevant to this enquiry are ESDP IV (2011/2 – 2015/6) and ESDP V (2015/6 – 2019/20) (MOE). The priorities for ESDP IV were ‘To improve access to quality primary education and to sustain equitable access to quality secondary education services’. ESDP V focusses on expanding equitable access to quality general education (MOE). These national priorities have been heavily influenced by the World Bank which was believed to fund 50% of the national education system in 2011 (personal

communication). The major World Bank education project is the General Education Quality Improvement Project (GEQIP) (World Bank). GEQIP Phase 2 (2013/18) provides financial support for the ESDPs. The organisational structure in MOE mirrors GEQIP2 priorities with CPD included in the school improvement programme.

National policy is administered through a decentralised system intended to value the different ethnic groups which are regionally based. The approach is one of 'deconcentration' ((Weidman and DePietro-Jurand, 2011) with policies developed by MOE but delivered through nine Regional Education Bureaus (REBs) with hierarchical structures of zones and woredas (districts) working with schools (MOE). In a culture where hierarchy is important, the Ministry has retained significant control so that the division of responsibilities with the REBs is not always clear. Local leadership on implementing education policy is provided by the woredas, including Cluster Supervisors who work with groups of about seven schools. This hierarchical structure emphasises government authority and control and de-emphasises school leadership and individual teacher development establishing a difficult context for borrowed policies.

This enquiry focuses on primary schools which cover grades 1 to 8 in two cycles (1-4 and 5-8) for students aged 7 to 14 years. Attendance is compulsory and officially free, although there are hidden costs including the loss of child labour. There are national examinations at the end of each primary cycle (in grades 4 and 8) and students may progress to secondary schools (grades 9 and 10, and 11 and 12) (Mitchell, 2015).There are three official national languages (Amharic, Oromo and Tigrinya) and many different local languages. In the first primary cycle, students are taught in their mother tongue and the appropriate national language (Tigrinya in Tigray and Amharic in Amhara). Students start to learn English in the first primary cycle and it becomes the official medium of instruction for the second primary cycle and for secondary and tertiary education. Use of a global language which is difficult for teachers as well as students presents considerable challenges. Primary schools and classes are large by English standards. The official student teacher ratio is 50:1 but classes in rural schools can be significantly larger (MOE). Schools are poorly resourced: students usually have desks but books are shared and equipment is scarce. Many schools have no electricity or water and limited toilet provision (Thakrar, 2009). In class, teacher centred activities are the norm and there is considerable time off task (Frost and Little, 2013) although a UNESCO survey has identified less time off task in urban schools, in higher grades and where teachers have higher qualifications (Young Lives website).Student drop-out rates are high. This school environment is challenging both for day to day teaching and learning and for implementing a school based policy on teacher development.

Figure 4: Pictures: Ethiopian students, schools and teachers

(All pictures were taken by me with permission from the REBs and those portrayed)

Primary teachers are expected to complete Grade 10 plus a three year Diploma at a College of Teacher Education (CTE). In practice they may start teaching before completing the Diploma and in some cases before completing upper secondary school (MOE). Teachers are allocated to schools which may be in remote areas. They are poorly paid and their skills are generally not valued (VSO website). This is particularly true in primary schools. There is constant movement in the system as teachers seek to improve their position by moving to towns and cities and from primary to secondary and tertiary education. Teaching in Ethiopia has been described as a 'bridge' profession with many teachers seeking opportunities to move on to better paid and higher status employment (MOE). Rural primary schools may therefore have poorly qualified teachers who lack commitment to teaching..

This enquiry analyses implementation of CPD policy in rural primary schools at the bottom of the national education hierarchy. The schools are likely to be poorly resourced with a difficult teaching and learning environment and few incentives for teachers. This context emphasises both the importance of CPD and the difficult context for delivering CPD policy.

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3. CPD

This section summarises CPD policy which provides the immediate context for this enquiry.

3.1 Background

The first national policy for CPD was introduced in 2005. It comprised nine modules in three course books (MOE). Teachers were expected to work through the modules with support from experienced colleagues. However an impact study in 2008 found that: 'in nearly four out of five schools the structure of CPD is either absent or inadequate' (Framework, 2009, p.5). Particular problems related to limited time, inadequate resources, lack of coordination, and the tendency to rush to cover the course. The study recommended changes in particular that 'The MOE …should develop a clear, transparent and self-controlling CPD structure' (p.5).These recommendations provided the basis for developing the CPD Framework.

Research by Fekede et al (2014) has highlighted Ethiopian teachers' negative experience of the 2005 policy where professional development was identified with centralised training provided through external workshops with formal lectures. Provision was top down and directive, a 'one size fits all' model. In addition, workshops were led by administrators who were unable to explain the material clearly to teachers. One participant expressed the following key concerns about the approach

> 'We don't have any say in the direction and content of the programme…. The training ends up in confusion as there is no-one to explain things for us' (quoted on p.77)

3.2 CPD Framework

The CPD Framework, introduced in 2009, is attached at Appendix 9. This enquiry analyses its implementation in primary schools in Northern Ethiopia. The Framework was produced by British teachers working as volunteer CPD Advisers in MOE and drawing on their professional experience in British schools.

The introduction to the Framework presents the problems with the previous policy, the research and policy context for the new policy and the key aim which is 'to raise the achievement of students in Ethiopian schools' (Framework, 2009, p.15) by improving the performance of teachers in the classroom. The Framework then sets out the nature and purposes of CPD together with information on time, resources and the responsibilities of the various stakeholders.

The new policy has ‘a clear structure and rationale’ (p.15) based on a CPD cycle of analyse, plan, do and evaluate. Following needs analysis, school plans were to be prepared identifying three development priorities for each academic year. Individual teacher plans were also to be prepared annually with activities recorded in teachers’ professional portfolios. CPD activities were to be undertaken for 60 hours each academic year. Priorities and activities to achieve them were identified at school level: suggested CPD methods were listed in the Framework.

The Framework was informed by international research and experience. It therefore included assumptions about approaches to training and school organisation which were unfamiliar in Ethiopia. The Framework is ‘bottom-up’ with needs and priorities identified by schools rather than MOE. It suggests that CPD should be based on ‘real situations’ and ‘classroom practice’ and that activities ‘should model the processes which are being learned’ (p.9) while good teaching should take account of ‘learning preferences of students’ ‘encourage problem solving attitudes’ and ‘provide effective student feedback’ (pp. 17 – 8). It also assumed familiarity with approaches such as ‘mentoring and self-reflection’ (p.20) and the ‘professional portfolio’ (p.22) which were not established in Ethiopia. On organisation, the Framework referred to arrangements on school leadership, annual performance reviews, resources and external support, which were not in place.

Akalu (2016) has undertaken a discourse analysis of the Framework. He has suggested that the policy treated teachers as technicians and blamed them for falling standards. His key themes relate to teachers’ professionalism and education standards. He suggested that use of management terms in the Framework indicated support for ’government professionalism’ where teachers’ professionalism was driven by government requirements. In fact, management terms were frequently used in education (Dimmock and Walker, 2000, p.304) while the Framework focus on individual teacher development should support teachers’ professionalism. On standards, Akalu was concerned that the Framework’s endorsement of professional competencies and areas of good teaching would support standardisation. In a hierarchical system like Ethiopia, some standardisation was inevitable and possibly even desirable, while the Framework focus on school level development priorities would help to mitigate any negative effects. Akalu’s analysis is interesting but not wholly convincing: in particular his examples are open to other interpretations as he did not analyse the Framework as an example of policy borrowing.

3.3 Early experience of the CPD Framework

Studies undertaken in 2011 and 2014 provide information on early experience in implementing the Framework.

During 2011 I visited 30 primary schools to monitor implementation of the Framework. The schools visited were an opportunist sample. Discussions were held with school Principals, CPD Co-ordinators and some teachers. Data was summarised, shared with Ministry colleagues and published on the MOE website. This data was collected for government business rather than research and should therefore be treated with caution. However it has provided useful background for this enquiry.

The 30 schools were in four different regions of Ethiopia. There was considerable variation in school size between 133 and 2095 students. 16 schools had over 1000 students including all four schools in Addis. 27 schools had completed the first stage in the CPD cycle and identified three priorities. The generic priorities identified most frequently were active learning (7 schools), student discipline/behaviour (8) and assessment (7). Subject based priorities were also important, in particular improving teaching in English (8) and in Mathematics/Science (12).

The positive points at this early stage of implementation were

- Good awareness of the policy and its requirements
- Considerable evidence of planning
- Some evidence of CPD activities

The negative points were:

- Problems understanding the materials, especially as there were no translations
- Little support from outside the schools
- Some teacher resistance

This data was collected two years after the policy was introduced. Progress was slow overall. It was not surprising that most schools showed awareness of the policy in discussion with an MOE Adviser but it was difficult to assess the extent of real understanding of the policy. The focus was largely on planning which was appropriate given the early stage of the process but appeared to be receiving disproportionate attention with very few examples of CPD activity.

In 2014 progress on implementing the CPD Framework in 10 schools in Amhara was assessed as part of an REB programme. The work was led by a VSO Adviser and former

primary headteacher from England. Data was again collected as part of Government business. Outcomes were discussed locally but not published. The author has given permission for this unpublished material to be referenced as background to this enquiry which also analyses data from schools in Amhara.

The aims of the 2014 study were: to identify schools with successful CPD, to check that schools were using MOE materials effectively and to identify support needs. Interviews were conducted with Principals, CPD Co-ordinators, Cluster Supervisors and teachers. Data was analysed by reference to descriptors of success. Recall of priorities varied: most could remember 2 out of 3 priorities. The most common priorities were student achievement (7 schools), active learning (6) and student behaviour (5). CPD activities included attending meetings, observing peers and joint planning. Teachers were interested in support to improve classroom practice, including more subject knowledge, while managers wanted to better understand the processes of CPD.

The study identified pockets of good practice but there were significant problems including

- Negative attitudes to CPD
- CPD approaches which lacked variety and interest
- Few resources or 'role models'
- No-one with responsibility for CPD above school level

The priorities noted in this study were similar to those identified in 2011 and there was a continuing focus on planning. The identified CPD priorities suggest limited understanding of the policy. There were continuing concerns about teachers' negativity, limited resources and lack of external support. There was no clear evidence of impact on classroom practice.

This section sets the CPD policy context for the enquiry. Problems with the 2005 policy lead to the introduction of the CPD Framework (Appendix 9) which is the focus of this enquiry. However there were also problems with early implementation of the Framework.

4. Researching in the Global South

Another important aspect of context relates to the research environment. This enquiry is an example of international research undertaken in and about a low-income country. It has been shaped by international academic thinking, and undertaken by a researcher embedded in English culture and experience. This research context and researcher positioning will inevitably inform analysis and outcomes. International research undertaken in the Global South has been subject to significant criticism.

Alatas (2000) has described Western dominance in the academic world as 'intellectual imperialism' defined as 'the domination of one people by another in their world of thinking' (p.24). He has identified six traits of political and economic imperialism and their intellectual parallels. These include tutelage where dependence of thinking in low-income countries has been taken-for-granted, and conformity where scholars in the Global South are expected to employ international approaches 'without question' (p. 26). These are challenging ideas, strongly worded to prompt reflection and debate, especially among academics in the Global South. Although, Alatas developed his thinking in the 1960s, his interpretation is still important, particularly as the impact of indigenous research has been limited while globalisation has encouraged the global predominance of international institutions, publications and methods.

Context is central to consideration of the issues involved in undertaking research in the Global South. It may be difficult to understand an unfamiliar and challenging context. In considering whether Western qualitative research still has anything to offer other parts of the world, Ryen has acknowledged 'For a Western visitor, non-Western contexts such as East Africa are complex' (2011, p. 440). This contextual complexity may include different approaches to ethics so that accepted ethical guidelines, such as those produced by BERA (2011), will not be established and may create problems for participants. To address the problems of unfamiliar contexts and ethics, Crossley (2008) has suggested the use of international research teams with researchers who are familiar with the local context working alongside those from different contexts who can bring fresh perspectives. This approach could encourage the development of cross cultural research skills for researchers from the Global North while also valuing the work of local researchers .It will not always be possible to bring teams of ' insiders and outsiders' (2008,p.328) together in this way. However contextual understanding may be enhanced by awareness of different research identities and positioning (Milligan, 2016).

Ridley (2011) has also highlighted the importance of context and culture in cross-cultural research. Working in Ethiopia but writing from an English perspective, she has drawn attention to the dangers of overlooking the embedded cultural context of our own practice, assuming that our practice is universal and failing to consider the links, and potential barriers, between societal and research cultures in a different setting like Ethiopia. These are important criticisms of international research in the Global South.

There is also the danger that the use of language and research approaches from the Global North may unintentionally introduce power relationships into the research setting. Nunkoosing (2005) has presented the use of interviews as a power play between the

interviewer and interviewee and has suggested that any interview ‘serves the hegemonic purpose of the culture in which it is produced’ (p.704) ie the Global North. This shows that research methods can be open to different interpretations which may affect research processes and findings. In addition there will be practical challenges in collecting data in contexts where there is a culture of secrecy, suspicion of researchers and a strong acquiescence bias, and in interpreting data where there are language barriers and different understanding of relationships and research methods.

Even given these challenges, Ryen has concluded that good qualitative research can still be useful provided researchers explore the taken for granted, and acknowledge the potential for mismatch between what participants say and what researchers hear. This conclusion is not wholly convincing as it is difficult to see how a researcher from the Global North could reach any other. However it does offer a pragmatic way forward if there is no opportunity to work with indigenous researchers. For this enquiry, it is important to acknowledge this debate, and to take a transparent and ‘reflexive attitude towards the researcher’s position’ (Ryen, 2011, p.449). Researcher positioning was introduced in Chapter 1 and is further discussed in Chapter 4.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has considered key aspects of context which will inform this enquiry. In spite of a rapidly growing economy, Ethiopia is a poor country with significant dependence on World Bank aid. It has a young population and new leadership which believes that quality education is critical to future national development. The education system is centralised and hierarchical: teachers are generally under-valued. Experience of CPD has been mixed including early experience of the CPD Framework. In addition the enquiry will need to take account of the challenges of researching in the Global South. Awareness of researcher positioning will be particularly important given the focus on implementation of a ‘borrowed’ policy.

Chapter 4: Research methodology, methods and data collection

This chapter considers the methodology and methods best suited to collecting data to answer the research questions and reflects on the data collection process. It therefore links research methodology and data collection, and sets the scene for the findings and discussion in Chapters 5 and 6.

1. Research Methodology

This section presents the methodology for the enquiry which informs selection of appropriate methods for data collection. In all research, there should be a close relationship between theory and practice with the ontology (the nature of the phenomenon being investigated) and epistemology (the nature of knowledge) helping to shape the methodology and the methods used. Cohen et al (2007) have identified the subjectivist approach as best suited to research in the social sciences, including education. This approach encompasses nominalism (where reality relates to individual consciousness rather than being externally imposed) and voluntarism (which emphasises free will and creativity). It is idiographic (focussing on the particular and individual). It is also informed by the anti-positivist tradition.

Cohen et al have identified the following features of anti-positivism:

- People actively construct their social world
- Situations are fluid and changing
- Events and individuals are unique
- There are multiple interpretations and perspectives
- Reality is multi-layered and complex (pp.20 - 21)

Sarantakos (2005) has summarised the different theoretical aspects of anti-positivism. In anti-positivism, the ontology is constructivist meaning that reality is constructed. Basic assumptions include:

- There is no objective reality or absolute truth
- Meanings emerge out of people's interaction with the world
- The world is constructed by the people who live in it (p. 37)

Constructed meanings will be influenced by communication, culture and context with the researcher drawing on the participants' constructed reality. Researchers in the anti-positivist tradition believe that the social world is best understood by the individuals who

are part of the activity being studied. They therefore work from the views of the participants 'from the inside out' sharing the frame of reference of those being researched (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 45).These approaches align with my own view of the world where reality is not fixed but multi-layered, complex and changing. They are appropriate for this enquiry which acknowledges complexity by analysing the implementation of CPD policy into practice and explores key concepts of policy borrowing and context through data collected from practitioners in the field.

The epistemology for anti-positivism is interpretivist which 'looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world' (Crotty, 1998 quoted Sarantakos, 2007, p. 40) and seeks to understand human experience by focussing on individual action. This approach is non-statistical and subjective, and appropriate for small scale research, investigating and interpreting specific information where the researcher may be personally involved. Interpretivist approaches have been criticised as relying too heavily on negotiated meanings. In particular, Bernstein has expressed concern that this approach may neglect the significance of power relationships where those with power impose their own understanding on unequal participants (Cohen, 2007). An interpretivist epistemology is appropriate for this research which is small-scale and subjective, focussing on individual interpretation in an area of personal interest. The research questions seek to understand and interpret policy development by analysing the views of participants. However they also acknowledge the importance of context including inequalities of power in the hierarchical Ethiopian education service.

Sarantakos has defined methodology as

> 'a research strategy that translates ontological and epistemological principles into guidelines that show how research is to be conducted.' (2005, p.31)

Methodology therefore occupies a central position in the research process between the theoretical constructs of ontology and epistemology and the practical methods used to collect data. There has been considerable debate about the relative value and success of alternative quantitative and qualitative methodologies; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) have summarised the strengths and weaknesses of both methodologies while arguing pragmatically for mixed methods research combining both. Qualitative methodology is closely associated with the constructionist ontology and interpretivist epistemology of the anti-positivist tradition and therefore fits best with the theoretical constructs for this research. Sarantakos (2005) has described qualitative methodology as an approach where reality is subjective, multiple, diverse and constructed by participants who are the active creators of their world. The approach is inductive moving from the specific to the

general. It is based on reason and common sense, informed by values and relying on interpretation. It is reflexive and context sensitive. This description aligns with the intentions of this enquiry. Qualitative methodology will therefore inform consideration of the methods used to collect data.

It is important to note the following criticisms of qualitative methodology:

- Results may not be representative and cannot be generalised
- The approach does not ensure objectivity
- Studies cannot easily be compared or replicated
- Close contact with respondents (sic) can lead to ethical problems (Sarantakos, 2005)

These criticisms apply to this research. However the enquiry provides an opportunity to represent the views of practitioners captured by a researcher who combines independence and awareness of the context. This research should therefore fill a gap in the literature on implementing 'borrowed' CPD policy and provide new insights to inform teacher education programmes in Ethiopia and other low-income countries.
This enquiry adopts a subjectivist, anti-positive and qualitative methodology which underpins consideration of methods to be used to collect data to answer the research questions.

2. Case study

Case study research is widely used although it has been subject to considerable critical comment. The literature suggests that a case study should be considered when contextual conditions are important (Yin, 2003) and where research is exploratory and there are few case studies in the field (Gerring, 2004). Definitions of case study include:

'a complete description of a phenomenon within its context' (Yin,2003, p.5)

The opportunity 'to explore or describe a phenomenon in context' (Baxter and Jack, 2008, p.544)

'an intensive study of a single unit with the aim to generalize across a larger set of units' (Gerring, 2004, p. 342)

The following typologies are relevant to this enquiry:

- Descriptive which describes the intervention and the real-life context in which it occurs

- Intrinsic used to better understand the case itself
- Instrumental where the case facilitates understanding beyond the particular situation (Baxter and Jack, 2008)

For this enquiry, research is limited and context is critical. A case study therefore appears to be appropriate. Gerring's definition is particularly helpful as it allows for analysis at two levels and accepts the possibility of generalisability identified by Sarantakos (2005) as a weakness of qualitative research. In addition, Gerring has suggested that the unit of research could be a national policy over time and that the unit may be nested within a series comprising population, unit, case and observation.

The advantages of case studies have been convincingly presented by Crossley and Vulliamy (1984) who have argued that the focus on micro-level issues provided by case studies can make a valuable contribution to research on policy borrowing by distinguishing between policy rhetoric and actual practice at school and classroom levels. This analysis is directly relevant to my research questions where analysis of a 'borrowed' CPD policy could expose gaps between policy and practice. Crossley and Vulliamy have suggested that other research methods 'rarely delve below the surface of the official version and may therefore only reproduce the rhetoric of policies' (p.199). Detailed case studies on implementation could help clarify constraints on innovation and causes of success or failure. This is the intention of this research.

However it is important to acknowledge concerns about the use of case studies in comparative education. Crossley and Vulliamy (1984) have noted that case studies may be descriptive, anecdotal, lacking in rigour and subject to bias, with observations divorced from any social or historical setting. Flyvbjerg (2006) has considered misunderstandings about case studies which overlap with these concerns. He has suggested case studies could provide valuable context-dependent knowledge while the detail could help to undermine preconceived ideas .He therefore concluded that researchers should use the approach best suited to answering their research questions, given research practicalities and the state of knowledge on the topic..

This literature suggests the value of a case study examining implementation of a national policy using detailed, context-specific participant data in an area of research where there is little previous work. This enquiry fits these parameters. The unit or case is implementation of the CPD Framework policy over the period 2011 to 2017. The case is examined through participant data from twelve primary schools in two regions of Northern

Ethiopia. Intensive study of this case should contribute to better understanding of the case itself and also of a broader population of national policies in similar low-income countries.

3. Methods of data collection and analysis

3.1 Field journal

Field notes recorded in a personal reflective journal will provide an important source of contextual data for this enquiry. This data will be informed by the positioning of the researcher. This section introduces the use of field notes and notes some considerations on researcher positioning.

Field notes are important for qualitative research as they can enhance interview data and provide a broader context for analysis (Phillippi and Lauderdale, 2017). Phillippi and Lauderdale have suggested that field notes:

- prompt researchers to observe more closely
- supplement language-focussed data
- encourage reflection and identification of researcher bias
- provide context to inform data analysis

Mulhall (2003) has also underlined the importance of context and the value of field notes in illustrating the whole picture and the developing process of research. This focus on context is important as it is a key concept for this enquiry. Issues of reflection, language and bias are also relevant.

Mulhall has described field notes as ‘messy loose texts that make no claim to be final or fixed versions’ and may be ‘only comprehensible to their author’ (2003, p.311). They should be written at the time of the recorded activity and in private to avoid any issues of confidentiality. They may be written when the researcher is ignorant of how events will unfold. Mulhall acknowledged that the process was an individual one which would be informed by the nature of the research and researcher positioning.

Berger (2015) has identified the value of field notes to help to balance familiarity with the subject with the dangers of bias. Participants may be more ready to share information with a researcher who appears knowledgeable and sympathetic but the researcher’s world-view will affect how she uses language, poses questions and filters information. Berger has suggested that these tensions should be recognised as an inherent part of research with reflexivity used to monitor balance and enhance rigour. Field notes support reflexivity by providing ‘self-supervision’ and by creating an ‘audit trail’ of researcher’s reasoning, judgement and emotional reactions’ (p.222).

The field notes for this enquiry were written up in private at the end of each day and recorded events as they developed. They are essentially reflexive, noting initial impressions and additional context, evaluating and refining the research process, and recording key issues and emerging themes in real time. The field notes were influenced by my background, noted in Chapter 1. They provide an 'audit trail' of the data collection process including reflections on context and researcher positioning.

Awareness of researcher positioning is particularly important for research in the Global South. Empathy and status are important aspects of researcher positioning. Gair (2012) has considered the role of empathy in qualitative research. Her critique has identified tensions between empathy and ethics. She recognised that it would be 'presumptuous to believe we can empathise spontaneously with a person who has experienced a different cultural history to our own' (Clarke, 2000, quoted Gair, p.136). On the other hand, Alston and Bowles have suggested that 'the skill of demonstrating empathy … is vital to in-depth interviewing in research' (1998, quoted Gair, p.137). This debate hinges on the interpretation of empathy. It is clear that an outsider cannot fully share participants' lived experience. However, where empathy is defined as 'deep listening' (p.139), it suggests the processes of engaging and reassuring which are common practice in good interviewing.

Gair has also considered the concept of insider/outsider status defined as 'the degree to which a researcher is located either within or outside a group being researched because of her or his common lived experience or status as a member of that group' (p.137). Gair's analysis suggests that a simplistic dichotomy is unhelpful. Milligan (2016) has considered insider/outsider status in cross cultural research and has highlighted the experience of different identities and shifting positioning in the research context. In this enquiry, my positioning is clearly that of an outsider. This must be true even within a professional context as my education experience is rooted in England and my understanding of CPD policy in Ethiopia shaped in part by MOE experience. However being an outsider need not necessarily also mean being ill-informed or lacking in empathy. Milligan has argued for the concept of 'a 'knowledgeable outsider' or 'in-betweener' (2016, p. 250). Awareness of positioning is important as it informs field observations and helps contextualise participants' data. In this instance my positioning as an independent but informed researcher should encourage participation and support critical comment.

3.2 Interviews

Interviews with Principals, teachers and education officials provide the most important source of data to answer the research questions because they capture the experience of

the people directly responsible for implementing the CPD Framework in practice. Interviews are frequently used to collect data for qualitative social research. However Potter and Hepburn (2005) have expressed concern that interviews are considered the default method with no consideration of alternatives. This section will therefore justify the use of interviews for this enquiry.

Interviews present challenges in all circumstances and these are likely to be exacerbated in the Global South (Chapter 3). Problems include the power relationships in the interview where control lies with the interviewer, interviewees' resistance to sharing information where full cooperation may be costly for them, and the restricted time horizons for interview data (Nunkoosing, 2005). These issues are directly relevant to this research. Interviews were structured and therefore controlled against an agenda which was unfamiliar to some participants. Participants may have felt uncomfortable expressing their own views, especially about policy matters, but were unable to refuse instructions from senior colleagues. In these circumstances passive resistance, acquiescence or providing 'official' responses might be approaches adopted by participants. There might also be problems obtaining detailed data which implied criticism of authority.

It is important to acknowledge these difficulties. However alternative methods also presented challenges for this enquiry. Participatory methods, such as personal diaries and action research, would be unfamiliar for participants with limited experience of research and difficult to arrange given the distance, communication difficulties and limited timescales for fieldwork. Ridley's research suggested that Ethiopians found group discussions threatening (2011). Given these constraints, I planned individual interviews rather than adopting more participatory approaches or focus group discussions. Individual interviews appeared to provide the most appropriate means of collecting data. However in the event, school participants preferred to be interviewed as a group. This was different from Ridley's experience but meant that participants could support each other especially in understanding English.

3.3 Sample

The intention was to interview education officials, Principals and teachers in a sample of primary schools in Tigray and Amhara. This approach was chosen because these regions are distant from Addis and have a reputation for efficient policy administration while primary schools are at the bottom of the education hierarchy in Ethiopia. These factors would test the extent of policy diffusion. In addition, I could draw on existing relationships with gatekeepers to facilitate access to schools. This section considers issues of

sampling, including the total population, sample size and strategy, and sourcing the sample (Robinson, 2014), as they apply to this enquiry.

As the CPD Framework is compulsory for all teachers, the total population was very large. The challenge was therefore to identify a sample size which would be large enough to obtain credible data but small enough to be manageable and allow 'individual cases to have a locatable voice within the study' (p.29). To achieve this balance, Robinson recommended a sample size of 3 to 16 participants. This translated into a target sample of six schools each with 2/3 participants.

Robinson presented a number of different sampling strategies but recognised that in practice convenience sampling was often adopted to take advantage of a source of participants which was convenient in proximity and willingness to participate. In a convenience sample the cases which met the required criteria would be identified and then selections made on a first come, first served basis until the planned sample size was reached. For this research I established the overall sampling parameters but was not in a position to identify specific schools for the sample. Access to schools and participants was determined locally, probably using convenience and snowball (or referral) sampling.

Sourcing the sample presented both practical and ethical challenges. The main practical consideration was access to participants. Because of potential risks in securing participation, data was collected from two samples of six schools in each of two regions. Identifying the schools involved local gatekeepers interfacing with the REBs to decide which schools should be involved. In this strongly hierarchical system, schools and participants would not have any choice about participation and might not be informed in advance. At school level, access to teachers would be determined by their availability: they might have little understanding of research or ethics. In these circumstances participants were unlikely to enjoy full opportunities for voluntary, informed consent although all interviews included information about the aims of the study, how the data would be used and assurances of anonymity (Appendix 6). These issues with sourcing the sample reflect the research context which also informed the data collected and the findings of the enquiry.

3.4 Data analysis

The data collected was subject to thematic analysis following Braun and Clarke (2006). Data analysis comprised the following stages:

- transcribing interview data at an appropriate level of accuracy and detail checked against interview recordings and notes

- coding the transcribed data for clarity and ease of reference and to preserve anonymity
- identifying items of interest in the data
- collating these items into themes which reflected key aspects of the data
- linking these themes to RQs 1 and 2
- prioritising those themes which best answered RQs 1 and 2
- undertaking the data analysis

This section has identified methods to collect and analyse data to answer the research questions. Using a case study focussed on implementation of the CPD Framework, data from a sample of twelve primary schools, six in each of two regions in Northern Ethiopia, was collected by means of interviews and field notes. A thematic analysis of the data was undertaken.

4. Ethics and trustworthiness

This section summarises the approaches used during data collection to address issues of ethics (BERA guidelines, 2011) and validity or trustworthiness (Guba, 1981; Shenton, 2004). These approaches were particularly important given the research context in Ethiopia.

This research has complied with the BERA's ethical guidelines. Within the overall ethic of respect, particular attention was paid to participants. The guidelines state

'Individuals should be treated fairly, sensitively, with dignity and within an ethic of respect and freedom from prejudice.' (p.5)

In addition the guidelines require researchers

'to ensure that all participants …. Understand the process… including why their participation is necessary, how it will be used and to whom it will be reported.' (p.5)

To secure this understanding in a research environment which is still emerging, I read out a prepared introduction, covering issues of informed consent and the right to withdraw, before each interview (Appendix 6). The introduction was available in writing but was not given to all participants as the language and concepts were complex and unfamiliar. Consistency was secured by using the same introduction throughout. I undertook to treat all comments in confidence and to protect participants' anonymity. Participants were given the opportunity to stop the interview if they were not happy with the questions. At the end of each interview participants were asked whether they had any questions and were given my email address for any future contact. After hearing the introduction, participants were

asked if they were happy to go ahead and for their responses to be recorded. All participants agreed. The tape-recorder was then switched on to record their agreement. Although I did not specifically refer to voluntary consent, some participants used this phrase in their response suggesting some familiarity with research processes.

Every effort was made to adhere to UK ethical standards. Permission to visit schools and undertake interviews was obtained from both REBs (Appendix 3). The interview process was adjusted to allow participants to support each other during the interviews. Participants were not debriefed after their interview but both REBs were given feedback to be shared with schools. In the data analysis, schools were numbered and participants identified by role to protect anonymity.

The enquiry has also taken account of criteria for establishing the trustworthiness of qualitative research identified by Guba (1981) and Shenton (2004). This section summarises their key recommendations and shows how they were applied. Guba (1981) identified four aspects of trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability together with the actions necessary to secure them. The following actions were particularly relevant for this enquiry:

- Triangulation, using different approaches to cross-check data
- Member checks, testing data and interpretations as they were derived
- Audit trail, recording processes of data collection and analysis
- Reflexivity, keeping a daily journal

Triangulation was possible because data was collected from different schools and different regions and from participants undertaking different roles. Interview data was also cross-checked against reflections in my field journal. Member checks were undertaken by checking information through later interviews and in discussion with the REBs. Processes and reflections were recorded in the journal and during subsequent analysis.

Shenton (2004) has reinforced Guba's analysis and suggested the following approaches to establish credibility:

- Adopting well –established methods
- Developing familiarity with the culture
- The researcher's reflective commentary

This enquiry used established methods. Twelve schools were visited in two different areas allowing triangulation across sites. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews, with the same questions for all school participants, and a reflective journal was completed

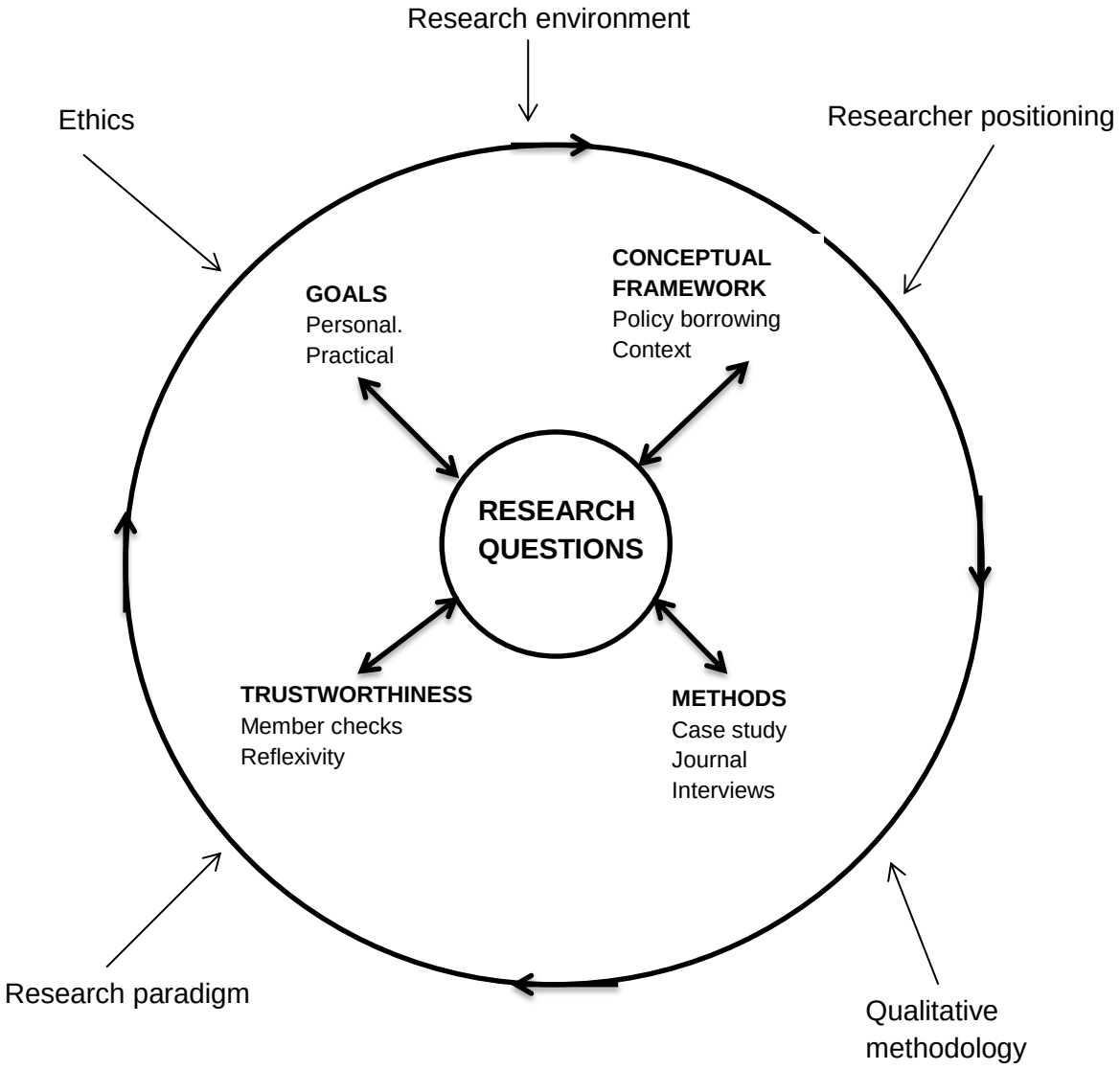
in the field. Although the context was challenging, I was able to draw on previous experience of the environment. The overall approach was reflective as recommended by Ryen (2011).

Shenton (2004) also considered transferability, dependability and confirmability. On transferability, a key issue is the extent to which qualitative research can be generalised to other situations. Shenton concluded that the results of a qualitative study should be understood in context. Issues of generalisability are relevant to this enquiry and are considered in Chapter 6. On dependability, the enquiry followed Shenton's recommendation to report all processes in detail. Confirmability, which concerns the extent to which research findings 'are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher' (Shenton, 2004, p.72), is particularly important for this enquiry as the original policy concepts were more familiar to the researcher than to the participants. To address this, the enquiry has identified the importance of researcher positioning, has been transparent about researcher experience and beliefs and has adopted a reflective approach to data collection and analysis.

The above sections have considered research methodology, data collection methods and ethics and trustworthiness. The following diagrams summarise the research design for this enquiry.

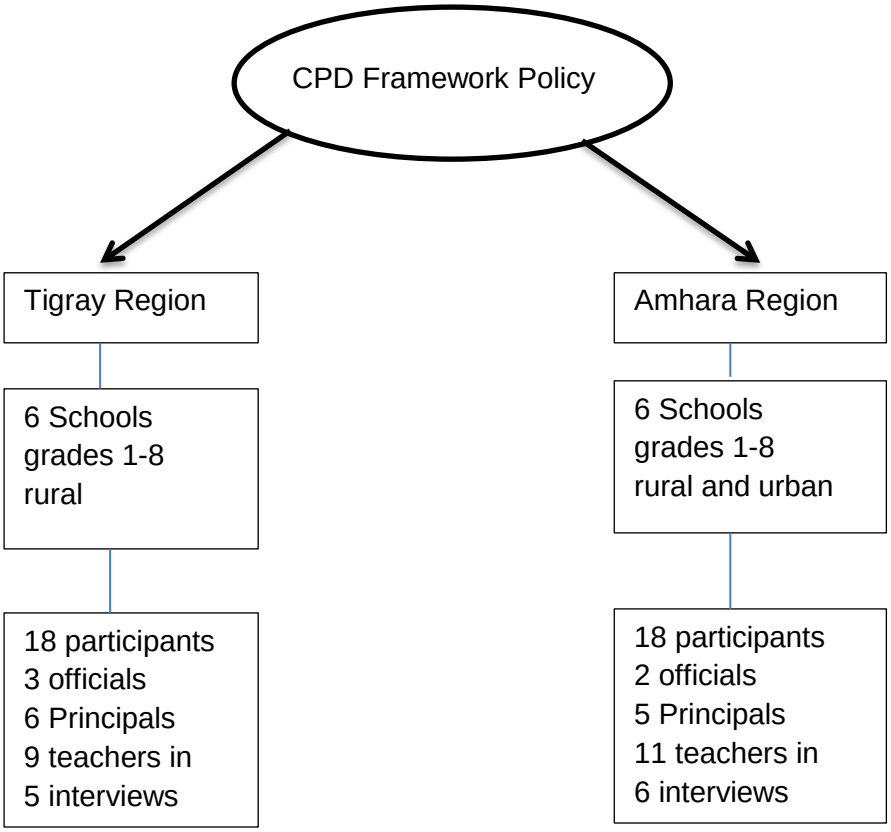
Figure 5: Research design for the enquiry

5.1 Overall research design



(After Maxwell, 2009 pp. 217-218)

5.2 Data collection



5. Data collection

Data collection required a fieldwork trip to Ethiopia to visit schools and undertake interviews. This section presents details of data collection. The data collected will be analysed in Chapters 5 and 6..

5.1 Data collection plan

The plan was to visit Ethiopia for 3-4 weeks in the middle of the academic year to undertake interviews in twelve primary schools in two regions. Two groups of schools were identified to ensure against any problems in securing participation. Tigray and Amhara regions were selected because of their distance from Addis and the presence of local gatekeepers to facilitate access. The gate-keepers identified schools within the sampling parameters and set up initial meetings with the REBs to obtain permission to visit schools. Data collection required 6 to 8 working days in each location. Interview schedules were prepared in advance in light of previous experience and the literature review (Appendix 1).

5.2 Data collection in practice

The overall programme for the field trip was completed as planned (Appendix 2). Permission letters were obtained from both REBs (Appendix 3). Appendices 4 and 5 provide basic data on schools visited and participants interviewed.

The following table summarises the participants interviewed:

Table 1: Participants and interviews

	Tigray		Amhara	
	Participants	Interviews	Participants	Interviews
Principals	6	6	5	6
Teachers (including CPD Coordinators)	9 (1)	5	11 (4)	
Cluster Supervisors	1	1	1	
Education officials	2	2	1	1
Totals	18	14	18	7

Participation was not a problem. Participants preferred to be interviewed in groups. This meant that fewer individual interviews were undertaken than planned: in Amhara one group interview was undertaken at each school. Interview data was supplemented by field notes. No classroom observations were undertaken to check interview data. Classroom observations were not possible in Tigray as the schools were not in session. This established a pattern for Amhara reinforced by logistical problems and concerns about the relevance of observation data to the research questions. The absence of formal observation data is a weakness of this research, addressed in part by informal observations in the field journal.

6. Reflections on data collection

6.1 Context

Context is a key factor in this research. A risk assessment on context was undertaken at the end of the interviews in Tigray (Appendix 7). The national state of emergency appeared to be a significant threat but in the event it did not affect data collection. Similarly it was not clear in advance whether the REBs would support the research. In fact both REBs were positive and helpful, providing permission letters which facilitated the process, and receiving initial feedback. Overall, participants were more available and more ready to make critical comments than expected. This could have been due to

geography with distance from MOE in Addis and the historical independence of Tigray encouraging greater openness. My positioning as an independent researcher may also have been helpful. I was also concerned in advance about the profile of CPD: was the policy still relevant and would school participants be able to answer my questions? In the event, the CPD processes were well embedded in all the sample schools. In addition, discussion of CPD was relevant at the time of the fieldwork because the Government was introducing a process for teacher licensing which included CPD.

Another risk was that schools would not be available. This risk did apply as schools were not available in Tigray. This could have been a significant problem. However, the woreda head instructed the people I wanted to interview to attend school to meet me. In all six schools participants were waiting for me. Participation was not a problem and there was more time for individual interviews without the pressures of the school day. In addition, I was able to specify the participants, and as a result, I interviewed more Principals than I expected. The main disadvantage was that I could not meet students or undertake classroom observations. Overall I obtained more data in Tigray during the school holiday than in Amhara where schools were in session. As participants had been instructed to contribute, I was alert to the possibility that they would only give positive answers in line with established policy or with what they thought I expected. However data from the Tigray interviews was not significantly different from data from Amhara interviews. Data collection in Tigray schools provides a powerful example of the strength of the hierarchy in the Ethiopian education system.

6.2 Interviews

The interview questions were tested in both REBs where officials said the questions were appropriate and my English was easy to understand. In Amhara, officials were interested that I was asking about changes when they asked about processes. The same questions were used in every interview to ensure consistency and comparability. The structure (easy factual questions followed by open reflective questions) worked well in practice. The questions were adjusted through the process to take account of the capabilities of the interviewees and of learning from earlier interviews; in particular, issues of teaching methodology and teacher licensing were not mentioned in the questions but once raised were checked in later interviews. Overall the interview schedule worked well.

All interviews were conducted in the Principal's office. Usually all participants at the school were present in the same room. In Tigray I tried to interview the Principal and teachers separately to identify any different concerns or impacts of hierarchy. However interviewees preferred to respond as a group where they could reassure and support each

other (including through use of the local language) so this pattern was adopted in the Amhara schools. With the agreement of participants, all interviews were recorded; notes were also taken. The process was formal: in both regions participants were engaged, cooperative and keen to help. The following issues may have impacted on the data collected:

- In both regions the REB permission letters instructed participants to give information. In addition Tigray participants were instructed by the woreda to attend school during the holiday. In Amhara the schools had been chosen by REB officials and I was accompanied on the first two interviews. The research was therefore supported by the education hierarchy. In these circumstances participants clearly did not have free choice about contributing to the research. Although I formally confirmed that participants were happy to go ahead, in practice they had little choice given the instructions from senior officials. In addition, teachers heard their Principal's answers which may have influenced their responses.
- The sample was controlled. I set the overall parameters and specified who I wished to interview including English teachers as they were likely to have the best English. The majority of participants were experienced and relatively senior. However the views of teachers in subjects other than English were not well represented. In addition there were very few women (2 in Tigray and 3 in Amhara) although the majority of primary teachers in Ethiopia are female.
- The research process is unfamiliar in Ethiopia. Although I applied normal ethical approaches, it was not always clear they were fully understood by participants.

6.3 Language

Interviews were conducted in English throughout. I rejected the option of working through a translator for the following reasons:

- Ethiopian teachers have been educated and trained in English so they have knowledge of the language even when they lack confidence in speaking it. I had worked successfully in English without translation previously and the REB officials confirmed that teachers would understand me
- Using a translator would have meant losing full control of the interviews including opportunities to clarify, probe and adjust questions, and to identify contextual issues

- I was using education terms in a policy originally written in English. It seemed unlikely that a general translator would have sufficient knowledge of this language.

It was possible to conduct interviews successfully in English but issues about language proved more significant than expected. Participants were operating in a third language which they did not use regularly. I supported them by providing copies of the questions in writing for reference, by simplifying the English and repeating questions. The process was helped by

- Use of common CPD terms. I was familiar with the English version of the CPD Framework which helped in interpreting interview responses
- Experience of the country. Awareness of local customs reassured interviewees while references to other parts of the education system did not require explanation
- I adapted my English to the context, speaking slowly and simply, relying on common prompts and emphasising phrases in 'Ethiopian English' where usage is different from that of native English speakers

It became increasingly clear that this research inquiry could only be successfully undertaken in this way by a researcher with significant prior knowledge of the country. Without this background it would be difficult to interpret and analyse the interview data.

6.4 Two regions

Data was collected from all twelve schools with six in each region. It was therefore possible to compare data across two regional administrations. Appendix 8 notes some differences .The schools in Amhara were generally larger and less remote. In Bahir Dar schools had more experienced teachers, while the rural schools in Tigray had some new teachers who had no experience of CPD. However these differences were small compared with the similarities of the challenging school environment and the impact of the national system.

6.5 Cultural differences

There were some issues arising from the culture in Ethiopia which informed the data collection process:

- The overall approach to time is fluid: this is combined with a 'just in time' approach. There might be little or no response to attempts at advanced planning. Meetings might not start on time. Recent arrivals would take priority over planned or actual activities eg during the feedback to Amhara REB, other visitors were excluded

from the office: this was unusual and prompted determined attempts to gain access in the normal way.

- Processes are formal; status and hierarchy are important. At the meeting at Tigray REB the gate-keeper wore a smart suit and brought gifts for the senior official. By contrast, and unusually, the official wore a sweater and open shirt and sat with his visitors rather than behind his desk. Written permission (including the official stamp) was required from the REBs before visiting schools: the permission letters were didactic.
- Information was presented in general, theoretical terms. Timescales often appeared unclear, perhaps because of the different Ethiopian and Western calendars and times. It was difficult to obtain detailed practical examples.
- English words could have different local meanings. In particular, it became clear that for many participants 'CPD' referred only to the process of planning in the Framework, rather than to developments in teachers' knowledge, skills and understanding. Although participants were able to identify changes in teaching methodology they did not always associate them with CPD.

Overall the data collection process was more successful than expected. The REBs were supportive; it was possible to visit all twelve schools; participation was good; the CPD Framework was embedded in school life. The main challenges were the timing in Tigray which meant classroom observation was not possible and the decision to work without a translator which meant that data transcription took longer than expected.

Chapter summary

The methodology and approaches identified in this chapter proved to be effective for data collection. A significant data set was collected and analysed to answer the research questions. Findings and discussion of the data follow in Chapters 5 and 6.

Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion: Research Questions 1 and 2

1. Introduction

This chapter analyses data collected during the field trip to answer RQs 1 and 2. A thematic analysis produced the following summary which provides the framework for the analysis.

RQ1: To what extent does current practice in Ethiopian schools align with CPD policy?

Themes:

- Definitions
- Comments on CPD
- Planning
- Sharing experience

RQ2: What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework?

Themes:

- Training
- Leadership
- Measuring and valuing CPD
- Teaching methodology

2. Analysis of RQ1: To what extent does current practice on CPD in Ethiopian schools align with policy?

The unusual features of the CPD Framework policy were identified in Chapter 3. The Framework is an example of policy borrowing. It is described as a Framework rather than a policy but Akalu is clear that although 'dubbed as a framework (it) in fact has all the features of a formal policy' (2016, p.187). The Framework targets practitioners, particularly teachers, reflecting international views on CPD (Little, 1993; Fraser, 2007). The overall intention of the Framework is that

> 'all school teachers, leaders and supervisors … will be participating in … CPD which impacts upon classroom practice to ensure improved student learning and achievement.' (p.15)

This focus reflects the fact that the authors were teachers rather than policy officers. This provides an interesting insight into the MOE's use of overseas 'experts'. The Ethiopian Government was keen to access international skills but there was not always a close match between skills and tasks. This may have been the case when the Framework was developed. The following analysis has been informed by these unusual features as well as by the literature review (Chapter 2) and the context (Chapter 3).

To answer RQ1, this section will consider the following sub-questions drawn from the thematic analysis:

- Do participants show understanding of CPD as set out in the Framework?
- Is there evidence of commitment to the Framework?
- Is the planning framework in place? If so, what is its impact?
- How far does school practice reflect the aims of the Framework?

2.1 Do participants show understanding of CPD as set out in the Framework?

To answer RQ1 it is important to establish participants' awareness of the policy. They were therefore asked the open question 'What is CPD?' to establish understanding of CPD and links with the Framework. All participants found this an easy question, suggesting an underlying awareness of CPD. Most responded by reference to the Framework, showing that the policy had become embedded in the sample schools. Participants offered a range of definitions for CPD: overall they reflected a contextualised understanding which could be related to the Framework. Although there were some references to the broader ambitions of the policy, the key focus was on CPD which provided teachers with on- the- job support.

It is not easy to define CPD (Friedman and Phillips, 2014) but the literature associates it with developmental opportunities for teachers already working in the classroom, to enhance their knowledge, skills and understanding and support student learning and achievement. Definitions are important for this analysis because a clear objective of the policy was to establish a shared understanding of CPD. The Framework states CPD 'should be clearly defined and delineated so that stakeholders build shared visions and understanding' and 'There should be shared and common understanding of what is meant by teacher CPD' (Framework, p.11).

The Framework seeks to meet these expectations by providing a clear and concise definition of CPD: 'Anything that makes me a better teacher' (p.16). This definition is open to criticism: it underlined the practitioner focus of the policy and may therefore have lacked relevance for other stakeholders; it could be misleading as resource issues were out of

scope; it may also be too broad to be meaningful. However it does have the merit of being simple and memorable. It is therefore interesting that in 37 interviews only one participant (E1, an education official) used this definition. This outcome could raise concerns about the extent of shared understanding of CPD. However, detailed analysis of the data suggests that participants were focussing on aspects of the policy which were meaningful in their context rather than simply repeating a policy formula. Definitions of CPD from the data focus on opportunities to develop teachers, with limited reference to links between CPD and student achievement. The following paragraphs analyse this data to establish participants' understanding of CPD as set out in the Framework.

2.1.1 CPD to develop teachers

Six participants (five schools and one education official) referred to opportunities to develop teachers (T1-4, A3 and E3). They referenced developing ability and skills as well as knowledge and understanding. Responses focussed on development in current roles. This is interesting as CPD in Ethiopia has usually comprised two elements: updating of this type and upgrading or obtaining formal qualifications to support a change of role (Framework, p.17). Here only two participants (a Cluster Supervisor (T6) and a Principal (A2)) made this distinction: all other comments focussed on updating. Opportunities for upgrading may have been limited for teachers in rural primary schools, although the Cluster Supervisor at T6 had received extensive training in CPD including at Mekelle University. Overall the data suggests that CPD was perceived as an integral part of the day to day life of the schools rather than something provided separately. This is a significant finding as this approach is in line with international practice in CPD (Little, 1993; Kennedy, 2004) but different from the previous CPD policy in Ethiopia (Fedeke et al, 2014).

It is likely that teachers in these schools had received little pre-service training, so the start-points for development were low. This is reflected in definitions of CPD referring to help on how to teach or undertake the teaching learning process. The following comment from the Principal at T4, a positive and articulate participant, is a good example:

Q:' What is CPD?'

A: 'CPD is continuous professional development. It helps the teaching learning process. It helps the teacher how to teach and how to resolve their problem. There are some changes through CPD in teaching and learning in school. Teachers' skill up their profession in reading, writing and interacting with each other.'

This comment directly links CPD to improved teaching skills, changes in teaching and learning and teaching as a profession: all areas of development which would be recognisable internationally. Use of 'profession' relates to improved understanding of the role of a teacher and the related skills rather than to any broader interpretation of professionalism.

Another interesting definition on development is the following: 'For CPD, this should become 'How do I grow (as a teacher)' (E3). This is closely related to the Framework definition which implies professional growth. However, it also exemplifies the problems of the Framework's broad definition at the interface between CPD and school improvement, and relating to the expectations of Ethiopian teachers as professionals. The Framework notes that CPD is an essential part of the school improvement programme (p. 14) but the relationship between the two programmes is unclear. The first stage of the needs analysis in the CPD Framework required all stakeholders to identify problems at the school. From this list CPD problems were then identified and prioritised. As the broader school community was involved, the overall list tended to focus on problems related to the difficult working environment including the lack of appropriate buildings, toilets, water and teaching resources. Distinguishing problems which could be tackled through teachers' CPD was a problem:

> 'There is confusion between CPD priorities and other priorities; for example one Principal had building a fence as a CPD priority. There are cases like this.' (E3)

To identify a good CPD priority E3 suggested asking the following questions:

> '1. Is it really CPD?
> 2. Is it CPD rather than a teacher's day to day responsibility eg implementing active learning is a teacher's job ….
> 3. Making it specific. '

This shows E3 had expectations of teachers as professionals in line with the Framework which states ' All teachers must be actively engaged … in their own learning process… in… activities that will bring about improvement of their own practice…' (p. 16). E3's second question is particularly interesting. No other participant raised this issue although routine aspects of the teacher's job were often presented as CPD. This comment suggests that clear understanding of the teacher's role was still emerging. Any development for teachers was therefore seen as CPD, including specifics such as preparing tests and exams (A2), as well as broader issues like active learning and continuous assessment.

The CPD Coordinator in A3 defined CPD as

> 'Professional training of teachers performed by themselves by making a group to discuss teaching and learning problems and solve them together.'

This is important in underlining the distinctive nature of the CPD Framework with needs analysis at individual school and teacher levels. This was very different from the previous policy where needs and programmes were determined nationally and cascaded to schools through centralised training. The 'bottom up' approach in the Framework argued for a new approach to training and support as all schools had different needs and priorities. However, because the Framework was embedded within the system, established approaches were adopted.These included cascade training in spite of the problems with this approach identified in the literature (McDevitt, 1998) and in the Framework itself (p.8). As the content of CPD was different for each school, training focussed on planning

> 'Every school has its own priorities so we cannot be there for every problem. What we can do is show how they can plan, decide priorities and go through showing the method' (E3).

There is considerable evidence of this emphasis on process. It is possible that this focus by officials may have skewed perceptions of CPD and restricted progress on activities directly supporting teacher and student learning.

Schools looking for more individual support in meeting CPD needs were likely to be disappointed. At A3 teachers had made good progress in preparing training and assessing textbooks but they received little outside support:

> 'We prepare the papers and other equipment for this training … They (zone trainers) help only after 2/3 months.'

> 'We assess problems in textbooks. We collect them. We send report to the zone/ REB but they didn't give any feedback and don't improve the teachers.'

This example shows that the broader system had other priorities and found it difficult to respond positively when an individual school showed initiative in working to meet its identified development needs.

2.1.2 CPD to address problems and gaps

Akalu (2016) has argued that the CPD Framework was essentially negative, making teachers 'culprits for falling education standards' and reflecting the 'discourse of

blame/derision' (pp. 179 and 181). Some definitions from the school data do identify the need 'to change teachers' (T3) and 'to skill up the profession' (T4) possibly reflecting broader external agendas. The needs analysis and prioritisation processes in the Framework focussed on problems and gaps but these were identified at individual school level by local stakeholders and then formed the basis of the school CPD plan for improvement. The emphasis was consistently on using CPD to solve problems. The following examples indicate the perceived benefits of CPD:

> 'its purpose is to identify problems and how to solve problems…' (A5)
>
> 'to fill the gap in teachers' skills. To solve problems teachers have day to day'. (A3)
>
> 'to improve problems' (T1)
>
> 'solve (problems) by researching and writing' (T6).

Participants did not appear to see the Framework negatively or as a source of criticism: their concerns were more about its value and the support necessary to implement it.

2.1.3 CPD and student achievement

There were five definitions linking CPD and student achievement (T1 and 2, A1 and 6, E1). The English teacher at T2 explained the link clearly. His definition of CPD was

> 'To improve the qualification of education depending on the students' performance studying at school.'

He linked his CPD with student achievement:

> 'I am extending my knowledge to benefit students. To have a good student, we should have a good teacher.'

He was also clear on the broader implications:

> 'CPD is very functional to improve policy of education.'
>
> 'CPD is very important to improve students' knowledge and skills. If we have talented students we can change our country. If students have skills, knowledge and environmental understanding, it is not difficult to change our world.'

This was in line with the overall aim of the CPD Framework 'to raise the achievement of students in Ethiopian schools' (p.16) through 'high quality and appropriate CPD which

impacts upon classroom practice to ensure improved student learning and achievement' (Framework, p.15).This teacher had made the link between teacher CPD, student achievement and development. However such understanding was limited overall.

This section has shown that participants were familiar both with the concept of CPD and with the approach set out in the Framework. Participants provided a range of definitions related to the Framework.

2.2 Is there evidence of commitment to the CPD Framework?

All participants showed familiarity with the CPD Framework which suggests commitment to the policy in rural primary schools at the bottom of the extended education hierarchy eight years after its introduction. Within this overall context, participants expressed a range of views about the effectiveness of the policy and therefore of its importance as they saw it.

There were some negative attitudes. One example was the Principal of TI who initially stated

> 'We don't know the purpose. It (CPD) is nothing for us'.

However later in the interview it appeared that the problem was not resistance to CPD policy; in fact the school had made good progress on planning. The problem was rather about the capacity of the school, including the Principal, to implement the policy when there was no support from the woreda:

> ' We have a plan. We don't know how to implement'.

> 'There is no reference material. No deep(ly) knowledge of CPD… the woreda has no knowledge'.

Certainly the English teacher at the same school, who was interviewed separately, was positive about CPD: 'CPD is very helpful for the teaching and learning process… CPD is very important'. He spoke confidently and articulately about CPD at both school and individual teacher levels and provided a detailed example of a recent change in his teaching practice linked to the school priority of improving student achievement in grades 5 to 8.

Some negative evidence was indirect with Principals and officials commenting on teachers' views:

> 'The teachers think CPD is meaningless' (Principal, T5);

‘teachers hate CPD sometimes’ (Principal, A1);

‘the majority of teachers need CPD but some don’t like CPD’ (Principal, A5);

‘Teachers see CPD as ‘taking time’ and ‘unnecessary’ (Cluster Supervisor, T6).

In fact when the teachers were interviewed separately they did not express the negative views attributed to them but generally saw CPD as helpful:

> ‘(CPD is) A way of enhancing teachers in order to be learning actively…To develop his or her ability as a teacher ….’ (Teacher, T3)

> ‘CPD is … for improving and developing teachers. CPD is mostly for the students. It helps teachers with how to teach, to read,to write.’ (Teacher, T4)

Perhaps teachers were unlikely to express negative views to an outsider but this makes it difficult to judge the strength of negative views about the Framework. It is possible that Principals were using this indirect approach to express their own concerns about the policy rather than accurately reflecting their teachers’ views.

The overall purpose of CPD was not clear to everyone: ‘teachers need to see the change or advantage of CPD’ (A5); teachers ‘want to know when is the end of CPD’ (E2). These comments show that even where participants had awareness of the Framework, they might not be clear on likely outcomes or benefits. However they were clear that they needed more information: ‘the module does not give enough help on specific priorities’ (T3); ‘I need more knowledge to plan and do CPD’ (T4).They expected to obtain this information through centralised training:

> ‘We need more training – how to work, how to apply… We have to have CPD training to work more to change the knowledge of teachers and change the methodology of teachers.’ (T6);

> ‘We need training by professionals.’ (T5).

These participants clearly did not see CPD activities in school as equivalent to the training traditionally provided by external experts through cascade training. The school based approach had not given them sufficient confidence to replace expert trainers. In addition, external training was linked to a broader understanding of and support for CPD:

> ’ I think CPD is important (because of training)… CPD is difficult for new teachers. They have no training about CPD’ (T5).

Overall there was considerable evidence of commitment to the policy in schools. Participants were aware of the Framework and wanted to implement it effectively. Their concerns were not about the policy requirements but about their capacity to fulfil them with limited training or support. These outcomes compare favourably with the negative views of CPD identified by Fedeke et al (2014).

2.3 Is the planning framework in place? What is its impact?

2.3.1 Evidence of planning

As arrangements for planning CPD comprise a significant part of the Framework, the response to this sub-question will make an important contribution to answering RQ1. This section assesses participants' familiarity with the planning requirements of the Framework and analyses the impact of planning. Overall the data suggests that the first stages of planning were in place with concerns related to the later stages, in particular moving from planning to doing CPD.

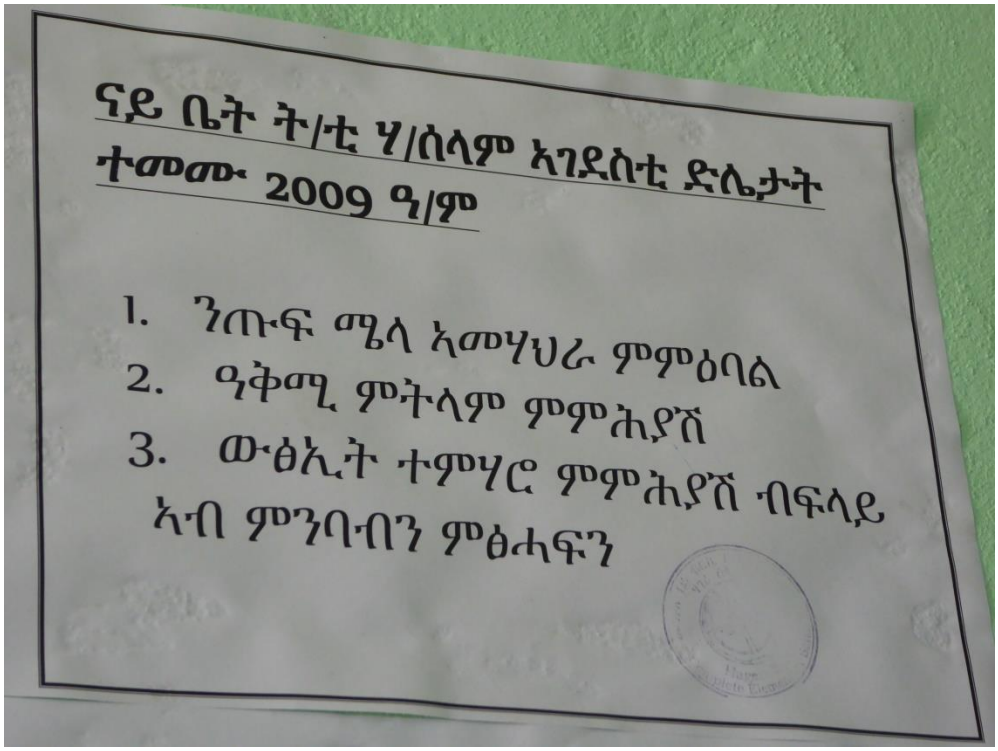
Evidence of planning was provided by participants' familiarity with the processes and their use of planning terms from the Framework including 'priorities', 'annual plan', 'module' and 'portfolio'. None of these terms was used in the interview questions so that it was clear that their use was initiated by participants. The following table summarises the planning terms used by participants. School plans were mentioned in all schools; CPD priorities in all schools except T3 and portfolios in all schools except T1 and T2.The biggest gap related to module plans for delivering CPD priorities.

Table 2: Planning Terms

	Schools in Tigray						Schools in Amhara					
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
School Annual Plan	x	x	X	X	x	x	x	x	x	X	x	X
School priorities	x	x		X	x	x	x	x	x	X	x	X
Module plan	x				x				x	X		
Teacher priorities and plan	x			X	x		x	x	x	X		X
Portfolios			X	X	x	x		x	x	X	x	X

Overall the table shows that the planning terms from the Framework were in regular use in the sample schools. In addition, some participants shared examples of school and teacher plans, priorities and teacher portfolios. These documents were written in local languages but it was possible to verify them independently because they used templates translated from English.

Figure 6: Pictures: interviewees and priorities



From the data it is reasonable to conclude that Framework planning processes were in place at the school level. However evidence of planning does not mean that planned CPD activity was taking place or that it was impacting on teachers and students' learning. In fact the data suggests that schools were experiencing significant problems in translating the planning processes into activities to support teacher learning. The following paragraphs examine three areas of concern: the impact of the planning process, priorities and the challenges of implementation.

2.3.2 Impact of planning

The Framework approach comprises a complex planning process which was particularly challenging as schools had no experience of working in this way while the rest of the system lacked the skills to support them. As it was a bottom-up process with priorities to meet local needs, CPD modules had to be developed by individual schools using internal skills and resources. The planning process also required time and expertise with the risk that it might become an end in itself.

Data from the Cluster Supervisor at A4 indicates the impact of the planning process. Each Cluster Supervisor managed the interface between the woreda and a group of about seven schools. Here the Cluster Supervisor was working with only three schools to provide concentrated support at A4. He was interviewed as a member of the school staff and was well placed to understand the requirements. His view on planning was clear:

> ‘The planning is too much. Make it short.’

His comments also indicated the efforts required to produce the plans specified in the Framework:

> ‘Before two years we train the teachers on how to plan the plan… After the training, teachers develop excellent plans.’

These comments show that planning requirements could present problems even with good support: they would appear even more daunting in other schools. The planning process was intended to provide a structure to support CPD activity. This example shows that creating this structure was itself a considerable task requiring time and effort which was in line with the Framework but not focussed on CPD activity to support teacher and student learning. Particular problems related to priorities and doing CPD.

Priorities

The Framework introduced CPD priorities for the whole education system but in practice they have only been identified at school and teacher levels. Schools therefore had no local models or support for this process. As E3 made clear, schools had particular problems in determining which needs related to CPD, as opposed to other aspects of education policy. The data suggests that schools also found the process of prioritising difficult. This section will comment on some of the problems with priorities.

Table 3 details the priorities of the eleven schools which had identified priorities. The table shows that schools had met the requirement of the Framework to identify three priorities. However some of the priorities prompt questions about schools’ understanding of CPD and ability to implement their plans. Two schools identified planning skills as a CPD priority. This raises questions about the balance between skills to undertake the Framework planning processes and to help teachers in class. Four schools identified preparation of teaching materials as a priority. In England activities linked to day to day teaching would not be included in a school CPD plan. However in Ethiopia where many teachers lacked basic classroom skills, CPD might require a different focus. Certainly A2 believed the school’s success in CPD was because the priorities were meaningful for classroom teachers. Some of the priorities may not be CPD. The Cluster Supervisor at T6 was clear that CPD priorities should directly relate to teaching.

Table 3: CPD Priorities

	T1	T2	T4	T5	T6	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
Improving Learning		x	x	x	x x			x	X		
Student Achievement	x x			x		x				X	
Continuous assessment						x	x		X	X	
Teaching Materials	x						x	x		X	
Department Priority						x	x	x	X		X
Planning			x	x							
Supporting community		X			x						
Student behaviour											X
Other		(a)	(b)								(c)

Other: (a) Curriculum for clubs; (b) Scale up the profession; (c) Tutorial programme

Notes:

1. There are a limited number of different priorities (11 against a possible 33)
2. There is a strong focus on learning and achievement
3. Only one school prioritised student behaviour

He commented:

> 'Some teachers' priorities are not CPD. They will write 'I will improve drop-out' but in my opinion this priority must relate with his profession, relate to teaching… Out of this there are some which are not CPD: community, materials is not CPD. CPD must relate to profession and professional development.'(T6)

This was an unusually clear view. More generally there was confusion about CPD priorities which meant that schools might be identifying priorities as required in the

Framework but focussing on areas which would not improve teachers' classroom skills. In addition, some priorities in learning and achievement were not really prioritised:

> 'To improve student achievement grades 1-4; to improve student achievement at grades 5-8.' (T1).
>
> 'To improve student results in grades 1-8.' (A1)
>
> 'To improve the learning process in each subject'. (T2)

To achieve these ambitions, improvements would be needed in all subjects at all grades in the school. This was probably impractical and would require a full school improvement programme. Schools may not have understood that their CPD priorities were to be achieved within the academic year as the Framework is not clear on this point. Certainly it was not surprising if they found it difficult to implement such broad ambitions. These examples suggest that, even where schools had met the planning requirements in the Framework, their limited understanding of the nature of CPD priorities may have inhibited successful implementation.

The number of priorities could be a challenge. At T2 the Principal asked for a reduction in priorities:

> 'Having three priorities is not good. One is enough.'
>
> 'The CPD would be better if we could research only one priority and get some help with it.'

In a delegated school system there would be flexibility for this Principal to adjust national policy in line with the needs of the school. However in Ethiopia this was difficult as the Principal had limited power and was answerable through the established hierarchy to senior officials regionally and nationally (Oplatka, 2004; Mitchell, 2015; Workneh, 2012). The wider education system monitored implementation of the policy as described by the Cluster Supervisor at T6:

> 'Monthly the school reports to the cluster, to the woreda, to the REB, to the MOE… There is a report: how many teachers do CPD ... I collect for seven schools and send to the expert in the woreda.'

Education officials checked schools regularly but this external monitoring was only quantitative, focussing on the planning requirements. Given these expectations on schools and the lack of flexibility there was little scope for local adjustment at school level

even where this could have helped teachers. There may therefore have been tensions between the specific planning requirements of the Framework and opportunities for teacher learning.

It was important that priorities were shared across the school. This was explored in Tigray where Principals and teachers were interviewed separately. In T1 the Principal described the CPD planning process as a reluctant response to external pressure rather than a whole school activity:

> 'I prepare the plan. I talk to the teachers. The school plan for CPD for this year: all the problems, the CPD problems, the CPD priorities. I have written the module plan.'

Given these comments it was not necessarily clear that teachers in the school would be aware of the school priorities. In fact in T1 the Principal and the English teacher both identified the same three school priorities. There was also good alignment in the other Tigray schools. For example in T4 the Principal identified the school priority 'To improve the teaching and learning process' and the English and Physics teachers identified priorities on teaching and learning in their subject areas. This suggests that priorities were in fact shared within schools.

Overall this section has indicated some of the problems with priorities. These problems meant that, even where schools had identified priorities as required by the Framework they were not necessarily well placed to convert them into CPD activities to help teachers and support student learning and achievement.

Doing CPD

This section considers issues at the interface between 'plan' and 'do' in the CPD planning cycle where participants expressed concerns: 'Implementation is the problem' (T1); 'CPD is good but when we implement there are problems' (A6); 'The problem is going from priorities to doing' (E3). These participants showed familiarity with the CPD cycle in the Framework but had concerns about 'doing'. The particular focus of their concern could be very different. The following extracts highlight two extremes:

> 'Before doing is difficult. Applying in class is easy because it is practical' (This teacher at T5 is concerned about planning although his assumption that CPD learning could be directly applied in class was probably unrealistic).

> ‘To make the program is easy; when we go practically it is difficult’ (For the Vice Principal at A6 planning was easy. He was concerned with applying the outcomes of the CPD programme in practice).

E1 was particularly concerned about implementation. He believed that schools were good at identifying needs and priorities and preparing CPD annual plans. For him ’The big problem is selecting the appropriate CPD method’. His experience was that when schools started to consider which CPD method could help solve their problem ‘they skip this step: they focus on routine activity of the school.’ He believed schools had good knowledge of possible methods such as action research

> ‘but they don’t know how they can relate it to their problem. It is a question of matching.’

He thought matching was a problem because

> ‘they don’t understand that ‘This is my priority’ and this is the appropriate method and if they do that they can change.’

These comments emphasise the fact that problems were emerging at the point where schools needed to move from planning to doing CPD. However it is concerning that this senior official apparently believed that the problem was simply one of matching methods to the identified problems. This implies that there were easy answers with correct methods to address certain priorities. In fact, as the Framework states:

> ’There are many ways to address a CPD need. The programme should be designed to be appropriate to the need, the context, the circumstances and available resources.’ (p.22)

Different methods could be used to address different priorities in different circumstances. Also it is not clear that the schools were in fact familiar with CPD methods. The methods listed in the Framework include: observation, action research, team teaching and mentoring (p.23). No details are provided possibly because these approaches would be well established in English schools. The data makes little mention of these methods which suggests that they were not familiar in the sample schools. A Principal and a Vice-Principal (T5 and A6) talked about ‘supervision’ but it is not clear that this was specifically linked to CPD. Two teachers mentioned action research. The experienced English teacher at A2 was clear that the school used action research:

> ‘to solve the problems of our students, in our school, in this environment.’

She also referred to peer observation:

> ‘supervision of each other. I visit her; she visits me.’

No details were provided on any method so it is difficult to assess whether participants had any real understanding of how these methods might contribute to school CPD. This is particularly disappointing in the case of mentoring where the Ministry had prepared and distributed a separate training module (MOE).

There was also limited reference in schools to the modules which were intended to set out activities to address each CPD priority. Several participants acknowledged the value of the national modules which supported the previous CPD policy. There was some confusion between the different Framework planning requirements which included school modules, teacher plans for individual priorities and teacher portfolios to record CPD activity. Three schools claimed that every teacher had his/her own CPD plan (T5, A1, A6). There is only one clear reference in the data to the preparation of a training module. The CPD Co-ordinator at T5 said:

> ‘I have helped to develop a module in my subject eg how to teach in class and transmit knowledge.’

The general sparsity of information underlines the problem of ‘doing’ CPD.

Overall the data showed that the early stages of the Framework planning processes were in place. Planning provided opportunities for teachers to be actively involved in setting the agenda (Fraser et al, 2007) and for CPD to take explicit account of context and classroom practice (Little, 1993). However the process of moving from planning to implementation assumed that classroom teachers could prepare and deliver CPD activities for their peers. This would be an optimistic assumption in any circumstance, but for poorly qualified teachers in Ethiopia with little support from outside the school it was a real barrier to progress.

2.4 Does school practice reflect the aims of the Framework?
The aims of the CPD Framework are:

- To establish a clear structure and rationale
- To establish CPD which impacts on classroom practice to ensure improved student learning and achievement
- To allow all teachers to become more effective classroom practitioners (p.15)

Following Philips and Ochs' suggestion that borrowed policies might be adapted to fit their new context (2003), the interview schedules prepared in advance of the field trip included a question about local changes in the policy. Participants always responded that there had been no changes. This was not surprising given the hierarchical system and the reluctance to question authority in Ethiopia. There was evidence of minor process changes, eg A3 and A4 had worked on simplifying different planning templates. However overall it was reasonable to expect school practice to align with the three Framework aims. The planning processes provided a clear structure. The Framework does not define effective classroom practice but the importance of teachers working with each other and talking about their practice was identified as a characteristic of effective CPD (p.9). This is in line with the literature (Little, 1993; Fraser et al, 2007). This section therefore considers evidence of collaborative working, as an indicator of effective classroom practice, together with preliminary findings about improvements in student learning and achievement.

2.4.1 Sharing experience

At the heart of the Framework is the assumption that teacher learning was best done at school as identified in the literature (Fraser et al, 2007; Guskey, 2002; Hardman et al, 2011). The Framework states that effective school CPD should be integrated into teachers' work, based on classroom practice and using excellent practitioners and locally available resources. This was a significant change from previous policy critiqued in the Framework and by Fedeke (2014). The Framework relies on teachers in each school working together 'sharing good practice with their colleagues' (p.17) using CPD methods which included 'sharing/showing good practice within your school' (p.23) and 'experience sharing' (p. 27)

The Framework therefore introduced approaches to collaborative working which were established in England but were much less familiar in Ethiopia. For E3, this new approach was essential as it provided the only practical option for enhancing the skills of Ethiopian teachers:

> '.. training cannot be provided for every teacher. CPD is the best tool. You can learn from your friends. We can share experience. You can upgrade yourself. I mean to be a professional.'

Sharing experience was central to participants' thinking on CPD. The following extracts show how sharing experience worked in practice in two Amhara schools:

> A1, English teacher: ‘Because we share different ideas with our friends. When the teachers get new knowledge, the students get new knowledge indirectly. This is good.’
>
> ‘There are three or four English teachers. They discuss their subject. They get more knowledge from their friends and take that extra knowledge to the class so the students get that knowledge.’

This participant showed a clear perception of the links between sharing and student learning.

> A2, English teacher: ‘We have a weekly programme for CPD. Each Department has its own schedule and we discuss the problems and solve the problems. (In English) we have four teachers. We discuss as a group every Tuesday. We speak the same language and do the same activities.’
>
> ‘We share experience from one Department to another, from one class to another. ’
>
> A2, Principal: ’By using this (supervision) we can discuss how CPD is going on and how CPD helps the skills of the teachers. She visits another class and observes. By using this method we can observe how CPD is going on for individual teachers. I also visit classes to see how it is going on in the school.’

These extracts highlight collaborative working practices and clearly show significant shifts in thinking towards a position where teachers were working together, sharing planning and information about curriculum delivery and student progress. This change was important in England in the early stages of school improvement and focussed attention on CPD approaches supporting the development of skills to implement and critique school reform (Little, 1993; Riley, 2000; Kennedy, 2005). A similar change in Ethiopia, facilitated by the CPD Framework, could under-pin progress towards improved quality in teaching and learning.

A2 had made further progress in whole school working. The school CPD co-ordinator was facilitating departmental planning and sharing across departments. Teachers were visiting each other’s classes to observe and comment. In addition the Principal appeared to be taking responsibility for monitoring progress by individual teachers and the school as a whole. This is the only example in the data of the ‘evaluate’ phase of the CPD cycle. There was no opportunity to check for evidence of these activities in practice but the description is convincing and the school was likely to be advanced as it was a centre of

excellence for CPD. These examples show that opportunities for 'sharing experience' could have a significant influence on teachers' day to day practice.

There was only one school where the idea of experience sharing was not supported positively. The Vice Principal in A5 had reservations:

> 'We gather together to discuss it (a problem). Why do we meet together? It may be a simple problem.'

The school was less advanced than others in CPD. They may therefore have been following general guidance without having fully worked out the best arrangements for their own context. However even in this school there was evidence of regular experience sharing to manage student behaviour.

Evidence of collaborative practice was also shown by the importance given to Departments in the organisational structures of these primary schools. Departments were usually subject based although in one school (T6) they were based on the two primary cycles. Four Amhara schools had identified a Departmental CPD priority. There is no reference to Departmental priorities in the Framework where the focus is on the development of teachers as individuals with each teacher required to identify personal CPD priorities and to make a plan to achieve them. Most schools had teacher priorities and plans (Table 2). Department planning could be useful in linking school and individual priorities and in ensuring that subject teachers worked together. The focus on Departments rather than individuals could also help to simplify the planning process. A summary of school priorities provided by the Amhara REB did not mention Departmental priorities. It is possible that they did not know about them: schools and the Cluster Supervisors may have been unwilling to draw attention to such a clear variation from the requirement for three school priorities. The introduction of Departmental priorities is interesting. It brought the planning process in line with school organisational patterns and provided support for collaborative working and experience sharing. On the other hand, it reinforced separate subjects at primary level and focussed away from individual teacher development.

2.4.2 Student achievement

The Framework aimed to improve classroom practice in order to secure improvement in student learning and achievement. The links were assumed rather than explicit. However education officials could provide no clear evidence of improvement in student achievement. In Tigray, E1 identified greater awareness of CPD and increased teamwork

as significant changes. He was checking whether reported changes in student performance might be related to the Framework. The position in Amhara was similar:

> ‘After the training last year some colleagues visit the schools ….. There is some change but not enough. CPD is about 10 years (old) so there is change (and) progress but not as we expect it to be.’(E3)

In both cases the focus was on process, including changes in working practices, rather than outcomes. In the same way the Cluster Supervisor at T6 was convinced that the Framework could achieve change if teachers were sufficiently conscientious:

> ‘Some teachers prepare CPD well and then they will see the result, change in the students… They are very little (few) who do this CPD. (only) A small number.’

All these officials recognised the need for improvement. Although they had no evidence they still believed that the Framework could deliver change.

At school level, evidence of improvement was also limited. The following school examples, one from each region, show how CPD was associated with improvement. At T4 a school priority was ‘improving the learning and teaching process ’. Within this, the science teacher had an individual priority ‘to use active learning in my class ’. He described the following improvement:

> ‘One priority is to develop the average girls. This is new work. Before the new year in Biology the average of the students is less. In the new year the average of the students is higher. I use the teaching and learning process eg jigsaw or crossover method. I know that from my class because of student score eg before the average is 88; now it is 90. In any assessment the result is improved.’

This teacher used new methods related to the school’s CPD plan to achieve improved outcomes which had been measured and recorded. The references to active learning methods, student assessment and use of performance data provide positive indications of professional development.

At A4 students had improved the numeracy skills necessary for them to move up to the next class. Both the English teacher and the Cluster Supervisor associated this improvement with CPD:

> English teacher: ‘The teachers improve their skills, also the students. Before five or six years many students were held back. Now more than 95% can move up.’

> Cluster Supervisor: 'The student drop out is reduced. This is progress. Before three or four years students cannot achieve the numeracy skills by April. Now after training the students can achieve numeracy skills before December 13.'

Although the full picture was not available it was encouraging that improvement had been identified, measured and linked to CPD.

Overall the data shows that practice in schools reflected the Framework aims in part. The concept of 'sharing experience' was central to schools' thinking on CPD. This was important but it was only one aspect of good classroom practice. Similarly, there was some understanding of the link between CPD and student outcomes but very limited evidence that the Framework had contributed to any improvement in student learning and achievement

2.5 Findings on RQ1

The responses to the four sub-questions together contribute to the overall answer to RQ1: To what extent does current practice on CPD in Ethiopian schools align with policy? Data on definitions, commitment, planning and aims has been considered against the detail of the CPD Framework taking account of the theoretical literature (Kennedy, 2005; Fraser et al, 2007; Mitchell, 2015; Akalu, 2016). Outcomes were mixed. Definitions and commitment were broadly in place. The planning processes were largely embedded but schools were experiencing considerable difficulty in moving from analysis and planning to doing and evaluating CPD. There was a recognised structure for CPD but it was not yet delivering improvements in classroom practice and student learning as intended.

3. Analysis of RQ2: What has helped and hindered progress on implementation of the CPD Framework?

This section examines the contribution of the following issues to overall progress on implementation of the CPD Framework:

- Training
- Leadership
- Measuring and valuing CPD
- Changes in teaching methodology

3.1 Training

In 2011 a key focus for implementation was 'training the trainers'. Problems with the cascade model of training were identified in the literature (McDevitt, 1998; Fedeke, 2014) and in the Framework itself (p.8). Nonetheless the MOE used cascade training to

disseminate the Framework with national or international experts providing training in each region for officials from REBs and woredas. The intention was that this training would then be cascaded by the trained officials to Principals and through them to teachers. To establish the current position on training, all participants were asked about the training they had received. This section analyses this data to establish the extent of training, and its contribution to implementation of the Framework.

3.1.1 Comments on training by school participants

Fedeke's research showed that professional development in Ethiopia was associated with workshops where officials used direct transmission (2014). School participants identified training in the same way; however only four reported receiving training of this type on the Framework. Training for senior staff was provided by both Tigray and Amhara REBs. It was not recent: 5 years ago (T4); 2003EC (2010) (T5). It took place in regional centres: Wukro in Tigray (T4 and T5) and in Debre Markos in Amhara (A3). The number of training days varied: 3 and 5 in Tigray; 7 and 10 in Amhara.

The general perception was that the training was insufficient. The Principal at T4 made the most detailed comment:

> 'Five years ago we get five days training at Wukro. The trainer was trained in England, a Habasha from UK. He had good information. In the REB there are obstacles to the training. The training days are very short. The trainer did not follow the training from UK. The REB modified the training to their system: they were little changes.' ('Habasha' is what Ethiopians call themselves: the trainer probably had dark skin)

This comment reflects the pattern of the cascade from the Ministry to the region, supported by overseas experts, and the difficulties experienced by the REB in providing follow-up training. It is interesting that the Tigray REB felt able to modify aspects of the training. 28 participants, including all the teachers, reported that they had received no training in the Framework.

3.1.2 Comments on training by education officials

E1 received 5 days training in 2009/10 provided by MOE and delivered by overseas volunteers with little experience of education in Ethiopia. This initial training was for regional officials who then became the leading trainer for their area. E1 was the first person to be trained in Tigray: his knowledge provided the basis of training for education officials in 46 woredas with the same expectation that they would train others:

> ‘Then the training cascades into schools. They (the trainees/trainers) have to multiply the training at the end point.’

E3 had received no formal training herself although she was responsible for facilitating training for zone and woreda officials:

> ‘Last month we had training for zone and woreda experts so they can support the schools. We had two centres. We had about 400 people at my centre…Before that there was a training of trainers where I was facilitating… There were about 370 trainees and another centre with similar numbers.’

The numbers involved may help explain the use of cascade training which allowed many officials to receive some training cheaply. The Cluster Supervisor at T6 commented on the training opportunities available to him:

> ‘I have received so many trainings on CPD, training from college, universities and other shorter training. Before five months I took training as a credit in CPD at Mekelle University. Before that in Abi Adi College for one month I took training on CPD. And in woreda and other’

He may have been exaggerating his experience. Nonetheless this is an impressive record especially when most participants had received no training at all. Moreover this example illustrates a weakness of the cascade model as the Cluster Supervisor was not passing on his training:

> ‘I have given only one training this year for my Cluster Principals and for teachers, one day.’

E3 acknowledged that the training provided by Amhara REB was basic:

> ‘There is one big complaint from schools and especially woredas and zones that they don’t know the Framework… They say we have seen the book but we don’t know how (to support). This training was just the Framework: what they want so they can support others.’

Eight years after the introduction of the Framework, district officials responsible for training Principals were still being trained on policy requirements rather than practical examples to support implementation. It is therefore not surprising that training at school level was so limited.

E3 recognised the problems of implementing the Framework through existing systems which relied on information cascading through the layers of administration to schools. She suggested that the REB training team might work directly at local level:

> 'I would like a training to support Directors and Cluster Supervisors directly … so they can support the school. If we can be part of the training… This will be relatively close support. We are training zones and woredas: maybe the training is lost.'

This approach would reduce the number of levels in the cascade and might provide more useful information to Principals. However the approach was only likely to be effective if Principals had responsibility for staff training and CPD in their schools (Mitchell, 2015).

Overall the comments on training from education officials highlight the problems associated with cascade training. Teachers were the focus of the Framework but they were at the bottom of the cascade and received almost no training.

3.1.3 School based training

There were some examples of school-based training facilitated by Cluster Supervisors or school leaders committed to CPD. The Cluster Supervisor at A4 provided training as part of the school team:

> 'I give training but not only me: the teachers also, selected teachers. The Cluster Supervisor, Director and selected teachers (give) CPD training in the school.'

This comment indicates one way in which A4 benefitted from additional Cluster Supervisor support. The Cluster Supervisor at T6 did not provide much training himself but he did facilitate a cluster-wide training delivered by a teacher:

> 'Mogus before one month gave training to all teachers in our cluster. His CPD is very nice. He is a model for CPD.'

This is an isolated example. However it does suggest an approach to school to school support which could be useful more broadly.

School-based training was apparently initiated without external support by the Principal at T4 and the CPD Coordinator at A3. The Principal at T4 was clear on the value of training both for himself and for his staff:

> 'I have given training about CPD. I am trained. I expand the training here by preparing a manual for the teachers in October.'

> ‘We need training for teachers. (they think) CPD is nothing. To solve this problem we need training about CPD. Stronger training. We need training by professionals so we know more.’

Like other participants, this Principal particularly valued training provided by external experts. He was not confident that his knowledge and experience would be sufficient to convince his staff about the importance of CPD as an external trainer had convinced him.

The CPD Coordinator at A3 appeared to have taken responsibility for CPD and facilitated school-based training:

> ‘We prepare the training in the school in the last semester. We call the trainers from the zone and they come and work with teachers for two days at all grades. Also we have a programme in the second semester again for 2 days for teachers in the cluster.’

The Coordinator was enthusiastic and active but probably also had support from the Cluster Supervisor who was based at the school.

The Framework was focussed on school and teacher needs but was being implemented with no effective training at school level. Even where the Principal was proactive he was concerned that school-based training would not be wholly effective. These concerns reflect the taken-for-granted identification of training with the transmission workshops usual in cascade training. The Framework introduced a different style of CPD and would therefore have benefitted from a different approach to training.

3.1.4 Findings on training

This section has considered aspects of training including the problems of cascade training and the limited evidence for school-based training. Kennedy has suggested that different CPD models could be linked to different purposes (2005; 2015). This data on training suggests that there may be a mismatch between the available model (cascade workshops) and the intentions of the Framework to engage and develop practitioners. The resulting tensions between process and content may have hindered implementation of the Framework, both directly through lack of specific knowledge and skills, and indirectly by failing to develop teachers’ understanding and commitment to CPD.

3.2 Leadership

In international thinking CPD is part of school improvement where the literature has emphasised the contribution of leadership in achieving change and reform in schools

(Leithwood,2008;Fullan and Miles, 1992) and has closely associated CPD and change (Day, 2004;Guskey,2002). In SSA, including Ethiopia, Principals have no delegated responsibility and operate as low status administrators rather than leaders (Mitchell, 2015; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Zame et al, 2008). To determine the contribution of leadership to implementation of the CPD Framework it is therefore necessary to consider the overall leadership structure, and in particular the interface between schools and the rest of the system (Oplatka, 2004; Workneh, 2012). The data provides limited evidence of leadership at school level. School participants, especially Principals, were critical of other parts of the education system. Education officials at the woreda and REB described their roles in terms of training or monitoring rather than leadership. This section will analyse this evidence to identify the contribution of leadership to implementation of the CPD Framework.

3.2.1 School participants' comments about leadership

In both regions, some schools regarded the requirement to implement CPD as an imposition from the system outside:

> 'We have no knowledge… (we are) forced to write the plan for the woreda. (They say) Do it…. I ask but the woreda has no knowledge, no answers.' (Principal, T1)

> 'The education office head in the woreda does not give enough support for this programme. They only order.' (Vice Principal, A6)

These comments indicate the formal relationship between the woreda and schools. The woreda could require action even when they were not providing information or support. Neither school questioned woreda requirements which represented an established power relationship.

Schools expected to receive support on CPD but expressed doubts about the capacity of the system to provide it. The following comment from the Principal at T4 provides a useful summary:

> 'The woreda and the REB don't focus on CPD: it is not applied. There is (no) focal person in CPD assigned in the REB or woreda until now….When we meet the REB/woreda we always ask but no-one helps us… Even when there is a focal person, they don't help. There is no information from others: no focal person.'

These appear to be significant concerns including a perceived lack of focus on the CPD policy, the absence of officials responsible for CPD and failure to provide information.

From the school's perspective there was a considerable gap between their expectations and experience of the broader education system. This was likely to hinder implementation of the Framework in schools.

In fact there were officials with responsibility for CPD working at both woreda and REB levels. A key role was that of the Cluster Supervisor. The data shows that schools had mixed experience of their Cluster Supervisors. In some cases Cluster Supervisors were closely involved and helpful: in others they were seen as having insufficient knowledge or time to help the schools.

A3 and A4 had good support from their Cluster Supervisors:

> CPD Coordinator, A3:'This school is a cluster centre with a Cluster Supervisor office and Supervisor… I meet the Cluster Supervisor day to day…Most of the time he arrives here. He can help with each and every activity.'
>
> Principal, A4: 'We do all this work in the school, teacher to teacher, except for help from the Cluster Supervisor. He is not outside. He is a member of the school.'

Both schools benefitted from the fact that the Cluster Supervisor was based on site. At A4 the Cluster Supervisor was fully involved in planning and training.

Other schools were not so fortunate in this relationship.

> Principal and teacher, A1: 'We need experts from outside. There is a Cluster Supervisor. He has 9/10 schools to help. He does not have time to spend…. He comes one or two days but he is the same as the teachers.'
>
> Vice-Principal, A6:'The Cluster Supervisor tries to support but he does not have enough materials. He comes one day in two months. He cannot support all. He is only one. He has three schools. There are more than 100 teachers in there.'

These comments were generally sympathetic towards the Cluster Supervisors. However, it is not clear why Cluster Supervisors could not spend more time in schools if this was their main responsibility. The problem could relate to different perceptions of the role. Schools wanted support but Cluster Supervisors concentrated on monitoring:

> Principal, T3: 'The Cluster Supervisor comes to support about CPD. To check only. No support. He does not know about CPD.'

This is in line with the comments of the Cluster Supervisor at T6 about his role:

> ‘When I visit schools sometimes I discuss with principals how they do CPD… When I get information about strong side and weak side I discuss with the Principal how to improve the weak side. But not always, sometimes.’
>
> ‘There is report: how many teachers do CPD, how many teachers are in induction. I collect for seven schools and send to the expert in the woreda.’

He mentioned support and monitoring but not leadership. It was clear that he saw his main responsibility as checking and reporting on numbers. Those Cluster Supervisors who were restricted by this limited focus were unlikely to help implementation of the Framework in schools.

3.2.2 Other education officials’ comments about leadership

Interview data from senior officials with responsibility for CPD provided further evidence of an unclear leadership role. E2 described the woreda role in CPD as ‘orientation’:

> ‘The CPD focal person provides orientation at the Directors meetings for 30 – 40 minutes. The Directors then pass on to their teachers by giving a short training…. Our first priority is to help awareness for Cluster Supervisors, Directors and teachers. We give orientation to the Directors and they create awareness in teachers.’

This response was in line with the principles of cascade training. However it seems clear that cascade training was not meeting school needs perhaps because it was poorly suited to the new approaches in the Framework. In any case, E2 was concerned with raising awareness in others rather than providing any direct leadership for schools.

E1 recognised that education officials had responsibility for CPD and had collected and shared good practice across the woredas in his region:

> I told every woreda to bring samples at each level. I have collected them. I have analysed them. They shared their good practice. They present good annual plan, module plan, session plan and sample exam analysis. We have given them training on what makes the difficulty most teachers and supervisors face: how they can tackle that problem.’

It was useful to share good practice across woredas in this way. The work shows that there was good experience on planning. However this approach would only benefit schools if the woredas were also providing leadership by disseminating good practice,

matching the information to school needs and filling the gaps. There was no evidence that this was happening.

Overall much activity on the Framework was focussed within the education administration rather than on supporting schools. As the Framework was practitioner focussed, it was important to share information and provide leadership at school and classroom levels. Principals in Ethiopia did not provide 'leadership for learning'(Bush and Glover, 2014). Opportunities for leadership were greater at woreda and REB levels. However the data suggests that these officials did not take broader responsibility for leadership of CPD. As a result it was unclear where leadership lay. This leadership vacuum is likely to have hindered implementation of the Framework.

3.2.3 School leadership

In line with global practice, the Framework identified 'clear local educational leadership' as a characteristic of effective school CPD and stated that

> 'Institutional leaders have to recognise themselves as educational leaders and must be involved in the identification of institutional CPD needs and the planning of activities' (p.10)

In fact, the Framework focussed on teachers rather than school leaders. Principals in Ethiopia had limited scope for school leadership as they were junior officials in a culture which encouraged conformity rather than initiative. They expected to receive training and support from external experts rather than introducing new approaches on their own. It is therefore not surprising that the data shows only two schools where there was any evidence of school leadership in CPD.

The Principal of T5 was committed to CPD. He was actively involved himself and had established systems across the school:

> '(I check) by supervising and by assessing the students. Also the Cluster Supervisor comes to assess… The Cluster Supervisor says there is good active learning in this school. '

This Principal clearly understood the links between CPD and student learning. He was checking students' learning. He had involved the Cluster Supervisor in undertaking classroom observation rather than just process checks. In addition he was supporting a proactive CPD Co-ordinator and had established management structures to ensure that all teachers were involved in CPD:

> Teacher, T5: ‘There is a needs assessment by the Department Head and Director and Coordinator ….We are going to be measured by the Director and the CPD Coordinator.’

This Principal was therefore taking steps to provide leadership on the Framework in his school.

The Principal of A2 endorsed and contributed to established arrangements:

> ‘We have a weekly CPD programme. At the beginning of the year we select the CPD facilitators. For teachers we give awareness at the beginning of the year. We have a budget for CPD…. CPD programme has been solved. Nowadays the teaching methodology is making progress…..All this helps to improve student results from year to year….. I also visit classes to see how it is going on in the school.’

This Principal was new in post so it was more difficult to identify his distinctive contribution. However he was proud of his school as a CPD centre for excellence and was providing leadership by setting a positive climate, supporting the work of committed staff and contributing to in-school monitoring.

These examples suggest that some Principals were able to provide leadership in CPD (Mitchell, 2015). However this did not reflect the established pattern of responsibilities in the education system. The fact that the Framework was school based suggests that commitment and leadership at school level was likely to be more significant than for other policies.

3.2.4 Findings on leadership

Leithwood et al (2008) have suggested that successful school leaders take responsibility for developing people. They would therefore have an important contribution in implementing CPD policy. This ‘borrowed’ assumption was reflected in the Framework. In Ethiopia policy leadership was the responsibility of the REB and the woreda rather than school principals. However the data shows an absence of any clear leadership. Schools were expecting more engagement from the rest of the system while education officials were focussed on training each other and monitoring processes. Overall there was no real evidence of system leadership on policy implementation. Although the data on school leadership is limited, the examples suggest the possibility of developing local leadership in CPD which would align with expectations in the Framework.

3.3 Measuring and valuing CPD

Some participants were concerned that the importance of CPD would not be recognised without measurement of its impact. Teachers would therefore think it was not important and would not commit to the programme. This in turn would hinder progress on implementation. This concern was recognised in the Framework where the intention was that CPD should be 'synchronised with the (teachers) career structure' (pp. 8, 12-13) with the CPD portfolio included in the assessment for teacher licensing and career progression. This section analyses references in the data to measurement, portfolios and licensing to establish the contribution of these approaches to implementation of the Framework.

3.3.1 Measuring CPD

In Tigray two education officials and one Principal emphasised the importance of measuring the impact of CPD in order to identify the benefits for teachers. This issue was not raised by participants in Amhara perhaps because CPD was generally more embedded there.

E2 addressed measurement in some detail:

> 'CPD is the difficult one especially to measure and value CPD. Teachers want to get value from CPD. What is the benefit in doing CPD? Lack of awareness of measurement means some teachers think CPD is boring….The main problem is to give benefit to CPD: this is the problem of measurement… They want to know when is the end of CPD? How to create awareness? The government must create awareness of CPD in teachers.'

These comments set out the problem but made no suggestions for addressing it. Indeed it is not clear that E2 himself understood how CPD might help individual teachers or that it was a continuous process. In particular, there was no recognition that woreda officials like himself should have a role in measurement or in creating greater understanding of the benefits of CPD. He suggested that awareness raising was the government's responsibility. In fact the woreda was part of the government and E2 had already noted: 'Our first priority is to help awareness for Cluster Supervisors, Directors and teachers'. In spite of the priority given to training woreda officials, this senior colleague took no responsibility for measurement or awareness-raising even though he recognised that they were important for the success of CPD policy.

E1 also recognised the importance of measuring impact. His interest was in identifying specific links between CPD and improved student outcomes:

> 'We have to do an impact assessment. Some woreda says there is some sort of change in point or mark of students results but small but we have to check it is not due to something else. These changes can be in many ways….Someone has to say what change is due to CPD …'

It was encouraging to hear of improved student outcomes even if the changes were small. However there was no evidence that E1 had in fact undertaken any impact assessments. Given the likely difficulties in establishing causal links and E1's reservations about the contribution of CPD, it was not clear that the planned impact analysis would help CPD implementation.

The Principal of T5 was clear on the importance of measuring CPD:

> 'CPD must be measured by externals. Until now there is no measurement. If there is no measurement, CPD is nothing. There is no measurement for 5 or 6 years so teachers think CPD is not important. We must measure and value CPD in order to do CPD properly….'

This Principal believed the lack of measurement was hindering progress on implementation: he appeared to assume that only activities which were measured were considered to be important. He was working hard on CPD in his school and was critical of the woreda for not doing more. He saw no activity on measuring CPD in the woreda: this is confirmed by data from E2 who identified the same problem but did not take responsibility for it. This example shows that the distribution of responsibilities between the different levels of the education system could leave gaps. This was likely to be a particular problem for the CPD Framework which focussed on practitioners.

These participants all believed measuring impact was important for the successful implementation of CPD. However there was no evidence that any measurement of the impact of CPD had been undertaken or indeed that the skills and structures were available to support this work. Measurement of CPD has always been difficult (Opfer and Peddar, 2011) and there would be additional complexity involved in measurement of a borrowed policy (Fong, 2006). The absence of any effective means of measuring impact may have hindered the implementation of the Framework.

3.3.2 Valuing CPD: Portfolios

The Framework required every teacher to maintain a portfolio or record of professional learning to provide evidence of participation in CPD activities and improvements in practice (p.36). One means of measuring progress and valuing CPD would be to assess teachers' portfolios. The Framework makes a number of assumptions about portfolios which were likely to present problems in Ethiopian schools. This was also true of the Ministry module on portfolios (2012) which suggested that each teacher should have a portfolio of 40 - 70 pages when many schools had insufficient paper for teaching. Nonetheless the portfolio record could be valuable to teachers as proof of their engagement and progress as professionals, and as such could provide an incentive for schools and teachers to implement the Framework.

Nine schools (Table 2) and two education officials mentioned portfolios. Their comments indicated some awareness of the process and its problems. Overall there was limited understanding of the link with improving practice.

Education officials commented on processes for checking the portfolios and support in preparing them:

> E2: 'I know about teachers' portfolios. We give orientation. When we go into schools we have a checklist: are portfolios present or absent? We give some knowledge on portfolios and CPD.'
>
> E1: 'Then at the end we check their professional portfolios: how many items are presented in the individual teacher or school leader's portfolio? Are they relevant based on the professional mentoring guidelines?'
>
> Cluster Supervisor, T6: 'Most have plan, priorities but not portfolio, not all. When we see this shortage before two months, I give training how to prepare portfolios with my friend for all teachers. After that they try to write portfolios: what he has in portfolio, what they put in eg courses. It is necessary for a teacher's information to put in portfolio.'

The focus was clearly on numbers (of portfolios, items, courses) while the Cluster Supervisor's comments show that there were still difficulties in preparing portfolios.

There was no recognition that the concept of the portfolio, a new one in Ethiopia, might carry different underpinning professional assumptions, pre-conditions and capabilities as

identified by O'Sullivan's work in Namibia (2002). In particular, there were very few comments on the lack of skills and experience in reflection:

> 'On reflection, there is a weak side. It is difficult.' (Cluster Supervisor, T6)

In the school data reflection was mentioned at T4 where the Principal and science teacher expressed different views on reflection in the CPD process:

> Q: 'What is difficult?'
> A: (Principal) 'Reflection. The outcome is invisible somewhat.'
>
> Q: 'What is easy?'
> A: (Teacher) 'The easy one is reflection. It is practical: you see your results.'

O'Sullivan (2002) found that it was only possible to use reflection if it was reconceptualised to suit teachers' start-points. In this data there was no evidence that this problem had been recognised or addressed.

Eight schools confirmed that all teachers had portfolios. The distinction between portfolios and individual teacher CPD plans was not always clear: this was not surprising as without reflection there was significant overlap in content. Training in portfolios was mentioned at T6 and A6:

> Principal, T6:'We have no training on the portfolio so it is difficult. The portfolio is important to refer how to give students help.'
>
> Cluster Supervisor, T6: 'Teachers, Principals and Cluster Supervisors have … enough information and experience to do portfolios eg one teacher gave training for all teachers (on) how they prepare portfolios.'

It is interesting that the Principal did not appear to be aware of the training facilitated by his Cluster Supervisor. This may suggest that a teacher sharing his practice was not valued as formal training. Further research on perceptions of training might help support a greater diversity of approaches.

The Vice-Principal at A6 identified the real problem with portfolios:

> '.. what does portfolio mean practically applied? That is the problem.'

In spite of this lack of understanding the data shows that portfolios were being maintained. Those seen were records of planning activities providing evidence for implementation of the initial stages of the Framework. The references to reflection do not suggest good

understanding either of the process which should have informed preparation of the portfolios or of the role portfolios could play in supporting the broader ambition of the Framework to improve teachers' practice. Nonetheless the data showed that portfolios were in place and could therefore be further developed to support professional development and implementation of the Framework.

3.3.3 Valuing CPD: Licensing

The Framework includes an aspiration to value CPD by establishing a link with the teachers' career structure (p.12). The intention was that the CPD portfolio should form part of the assessment for licensing teachers or considering promotion. This might encourage teachers' participation in CPD. As there had been no previous success in making this link (2011 study) no interview questions were included on licensing. However, three school participants and all three education officials commented on the introduction of new arrangements for licensing which they believed would support implementation of the Framework. The aspiration to value CPD by making a link with licensing was long-standing but the links were not yet in place.

Education officials showed the clearest understanding of the new arrangements for licensing:

> Cluster Supervisor, T6: 'All teachers have information on licensing last year in June, July, August. 70 – 80% is a test on their profession and the rest is portfolio. ….. I think after one or two years if the Government do licensing with portfolio, teachers must do CPD.'
>
> E1: 'For licensing 80% exam on knowledge and skill, 20% is given for the portfolio starting this year. Most of the teachers are asking that CPD must be related with the licensing. The license/relicense process supports CPD and the CPD supports the license/relicense process.'

These officials were clear on the link between licensing and the CPD portfolio. It is interesting that E1 reported that teachers were asking for this link. This contrasts with the comments of the teacher at A6:

> 'Starting from this year, a new program. Some teachers take but others treat as voluntary. Most teachers do not accept license program.'

If E1 was correct, it would be helpful to know more about any consultation involving teachers. Licensing appeared to be an imposed process but reference to consultation could help to legitimate it as happened with the Framework (p.16).

E3 was less clear on licensing as the work was being done by another team:

> 'We don't know about licensing – TDP are not involved. There is a separate licensing section in the REB.'

This does not suggest a joined-up approach. However she recognised the potential benefit for CPD:

> 'If they do CPD properly they will score highly on the license. If they do CPD properly and pass the licensing exam it will help their profession.'

Two Principals also suggested that links with licensing could benefit CPD:

> Principal, T4: 'CPD value is much less until now. They are ordering us in licensing from now. Value is added in licensing. Even now oral orientation but not yet applied.'

> Principal, T5: 'Before there is no licensing. I hope it begins this year. The teachers need to see licensing so they value CPD.'

It is possible that links between CPD and licensing could motivate teachers and therefore support implementation. However these links were not yet in place.

3.3.4 Findings on measuring and valuing CPD

Participants suggested that measuring the impact of CPD and the introduction of clear links between portfolios and licensing for teachers could support implementation of the Framework. As yet there was no data. Portfolios were being prepared but there was limited understanding of how they might help improve practice. Licensing was not yet in place. Overall it is possible that the absence of measurement and of the link with licensing may have hindered progress on implementation but the evidence is not clear.

3.4 Changes in teaching methodology

As the Framework makes almost no reference to teaching methodology, the interview schedule included no questions about it. Yet many school participants mentioned teaching methodology without prompting and provided detailed data on student-centred active learning which they clearly associated with CPD. This was an unexpected and interesting outcome particularly as the literature identified significant challenges in introducing

student-centred learning in low-income countries including Ethiopia (Schweisfurth, 2011; Thompson, 2013; Derebssa, 2006). This is important as changes in teaching methodology could contribute to the overall ambition of the Framework to improve student achievement. However the availability of this data raises questions which were recorded in the field journal: How was information on active learning so widespread when teaching methodology was not mentioned in the Framework and teachers had received no training in CPD? Why was this information available at school and teacher levels when the usual approach to dissemination was by cascade training through the education hierarchy? What was motivating teachers to use these approaches in large classes with limited resources? This section considers data on active learning to establish the relationship, if any, with implementation of the Framework.

3.4.1 Active Learning

Participants at all 12 schools made reference to active learning. It was a clear CPD priority in four schools (T2, T4, T5 and A4) and may also have been important in other schools where the priorities related to teaching methodology more generally.

Among education officials only E3 mentioned active learning. She acknowledged the need for more knowledge on 'new different methods to be used in the school'. Interestingly she also suggested that implementing active learning should be part of the teacher's day to day responsibility rather than CPD. This was not a view shared by the school respondents who identified active learning closely with CPD.

School participants identified the benefits of active learning for their students. The Cluster Supervisor at A4 commented in detail. He suggested that the approach helped student engagement:

> '… we do training to facilitate active learning methodology. We give training to make active participation of students. Before most students are passive… they become active participating in all aspects.' (A4)

It could also be helpful where students were 'off-task' as was common in Ethiopian classes (Frost and Little, 2014):

> 'It may be in a group three students are off-task because the subject is bulky and not interesting. After active learning training the teacher gives the students an interesting topic eg the teacher gives group discussion, the students participate. Also they get the students to compete to encourage off -task students.' (A4)

and in ensuring continuity of learning in the absence of the teacher

> ‘If there is no teacher, the students teach each other …One is the group leader, an active student. He can teach other group members. This is the result of active learning.’(A4)

However active learning was clearly not an easy option:

> ‘The (CPD) problem is active learning. This problem is solved by training from the Cluster Supervisor and the Director and selected teachers. We have given this training four times.’ (A4)

This repeated training may reflect the difficulties teachers experienced in moving away from traditional whole class teaching noted in the literature (MOE, 2012; Barnes et al, 2018; Derebssa, 2006). Very few schools would be able to provide training in this way. This perseverance is particularly interesting given the apparent lack of official support.

Participants also suggested that active learning could support student achievement. The CPD Coordinator at T5 was particularly positive:

> ‘Before I came to the school, there are many weak students. I use active learning methods in my class and students is transformed. I can transmit this method. The students can be changed.’

This teacher was using active methods with his own students and was also using his role as CPD Coordinator to support other teachers to work in the same way. This establishes a direct link between the Framework and the change in methodology.

Participants reported that students were benefitting from active learning approaches. As no classroom observation was undertaken, it was not possible to check the nature of the approaches actually used or the students’ response in practice. However it was clear that schools were putting considerable efforts into student centred learning while the problems identified in the literature (Schweisfurth, 2011; Derebssa, 2006) were not mentioned.

Participants clearly associated the benefits of active learning with CPD:

> ‘We want to learn the new methodology. Most CPD is focussing in the school on the active learning process in large classes.’ (A1)

In T4 the Principal identified use of active learning approaches to help teachers as a positive objective of CPD:

‘applying in the classroom, making teaching in the classroom easier for teachers. Students work in groups. We use discussion, field trip, using teaching aids … Applying in class is easy because it is practical.’

Education officials did not comment on active learning but school participants associated it with improvements in student engagement, learning and achievement and also identified benefits for teachers. There were no negative comments about active learning. The new methodology was strongly associated with the CPD Framework.

2.4.1 Active Learning Methods

Table 4: Active learning methods from school data

Methods	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
Group work			x	x	X	X	x	x		x		X
Action research								x	x		x	
Reflection				x		X						
Drama/role play	X	x	x		X			x				X
Crossover				x	X							
Jigsaw			x	x				x				
Field work				x								X
Others				x				x	x		x	

Note: Others include brainstorming (T4), quiz (A2), pair discussion (A3), learning styles (A5)

Table 4 summarises the active learning methods mentioned by school participants. The methods have been cross referenced to examples in the Higher Diploma Programme (HDP) Handbook (MOE, 2011). An impact study of the HDP (MOE, 2012) showed that the use of active learning by teacher educators was short-lived. The evaluators therefore expressed reservations about the overall success of the programme, particularly on training for teachers. In spite of this, the table indicates broad familiarity with active learning methods in the HDP Handbook.

Most schools referred to students working in groups while T4 and A2 provided information on a number of different methods. The following examples show that respondents were able to describe the methods in detail:

Debate: ’Students speak freely … they read news in English and discuss in English. Some students find it hard but the top students enjoy.’ (T1)

> Group work: '…by grouping students, ABC, 1 – 5 and by mixing abilities. From weak, middle and strong students we mix in groups. We use different groups eg jigsaw groups and sometimes role play.' (T3)
>
> Crossover groups: 'I use active learning to discuss in groups. In crossover one group discusses then the leader moves to the next group and shares and the group adds information. The group leaders move to another group to exchange ideas.'(T4)
>
> Other methods: 'We use many active learning methods. Many student-centred eg most of the time we use group discussion, question and answer, peer teaching and the like. I give the students a task, then they discuss in pairs, then in groups and I encourage and guide them.' (A3)

Overall the field journal records that 'the teachers said enough about the methods to convince us that they were not just using the words but had some experience in practice' (p.19).

In addition, in a classroom in T6 the usual rows of desks had been rearranged in a horse-shoe to facilitate interaction:

> 'so students can share and teachers can support the students.'

Most of these comments were made by teachers. Although it was not possible to check for evidence of active learning methods in classroom practice, this data suggests greater awareness of active learning methods than might have been expected, especially as the CPD Framework made no reference to them.

3.4.3 Findings on teaching methodology

Although the Framework does not provide any detail on active learning, participants in schools in both regions referred to this new teaching methodology positively without prompting, and associated it closely with the CPD Framework. This positive association was interesting and unexpected. The Government has a target for student-centred teaching and learning in Ethiopian classrooms but the literature suggested that progress had been limited (Frost and Little, 2014). The Framework made few references to active-learning perhaps because this methodology was taken-for-granted by the authors. In spite of this, the Framework clearly provided opportunities for schools to develop active learning and this in turn may have encouraged implementation of the Framework where schools and teachers were interested in adopting the new methodology. However the links are

indirect and unclear, possibly providing an example of organic change. In addition to CPD policy other influences may have been involved: active learning programmes for teacher educators may have had influence while both active learning and the Framework itself were products of education globalisation.

3.5 Findings on RQ2

This section has considered RQ2: What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework? The contribution of four themes, identified through thematic analysis, was considered taking account of the theoretical literature. The themes were training (Fedeke, 2014; Kennedy, 2015), leadership (Bush and Glover, 2014; Oplatka, 2004; Mitchell, 2015), measuring and valuing CPD (O'Sullivan, 2002) and teaching methodology (Schweisfurth, 2011; Derebssa,2006; Frost and Little,2014).The findings were as follows: limited training opportunities, a lack of clear educational leadership and the failure to measure and value the impact of CPD may have hindered progress on implementation. However the link between student centred, active learning and the Framework may have helped implementation.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has analysed the data to answer Research Questions 1 and 2::

- To what extent does current practice in Ethiopia schools align with CPD policy?
- What has helped and hindered progress on implementing the CPD Framework?

Chapter 6 considers Research Question 3:

- How can this analysis inform successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in future?

Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion for Research Question 3

This chapter builds on the findings and discussion for RQs 1 and 2 in Chapter 5, using outcomes from the case study on the CPD Framework in Ethiopia to inform a new model for analysing policy borrowing. The new model answers RQ3: How can this analysis inform successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in future? It is intended to support analysis and encourage successful policy borrowing on teacher education in low-income countries. Specific findings on RQ1 and 2 are drawn together at a different level of analysis to identify positive aspects of implementation which should be reinforced and negative aspects which need to be addressed to enhance successful implementation.

The new model has drawn on case study findings. This requires some justification as the literature has suggested that findings from qualitative methodologies, including the case study, are not generalisable (Sarantakos, 2005). However, as noted in Chapter 4, Gerring's definition of the case study accepts both the possibility and the intention to generalise (Gerring, 2004). In broader discussion of generalisability as an aspect of trustworthiness, Shenton (2005) considered the extent to which case study findings could be applied to different situations and suggested that a case study, although unique, could be seen as an example of a broader group allowing for generalisability across the group. This literature therefore supports the approach adopted here where findings from a qualitative case study inform a model to be applied beyond the specific case but within a similar group. In this case, the group comprises other low-income countries with each country being a unit in Gerring's terms. Ethiopia is itself a low-income country in SSA: it is dependent on international aid and the associated expectations of the World Bank, and the national education system is influenced by the impact of globalisation on education (Spring, 2015). These similarities suggest that a model based on case study findings from Ethiopia could be useful in informing research and implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education in other countries in similar circumstances.

The findings from RQ1 and 2 were mixed. The analysis of RQ1 showed evidence of understanding of and commitment to the CPD Framework while the first stages of the planning cycle (analyse and plan) were embedded in school life. However the later stages of the planning cycle (do and evaluate) were not in place which significantly limited the impact of the planning structure on teacher and student learning. There was evidence of some changes in classroom practice, in particular sharing experience and increased collaborative working. However there was no real evidence that the Framework

approaches had impacted on student outcomes to contribute to the overall policy aim: 'to improve the performance of teachers in the classroom in order to improve student achievement and learning' (Framework, p.16). The analysis of RQ2 examined the contributions to policy implementation made by training, leadership, measuring and valuing CPD and changes in teaching methodology. Limited training opportunities and a lack of clear leadership probably hindered successful implementation. There was insufficient evidence to determine whether missed opportunities for measuring and valuing CPD had any significant impact. However the link which schools had made between the CPD Framework and active learning probably helped implementation. The Framework did not directly introduce active learning or active learning methods but it provided a useful vehicle for developing this methodology which supported Government ambitions and the policy intentions of the Framework. Overall the analysis suggested that, in spite of progress on establishing the planning structure in the Framework, the policy had not impacted on student achievement. This was not a surprising outcome given the scale of the changes involved in implementing a policy borrowed from England in the significantly different context in Ethiopia.

To answer RQ3, these findings are now considered more broadly as an example of policy borrowing. The following points are particularly important:

- the policy was embedded with evidence of ongoing commitment in the schools
- the policy provided an environment for developing new working practices and teaching methodologies

on the other hand

- the planning processes were unfamiliar and time-consuming and were arguably a distraction from teacher and student learning
- There was insufficient support for the policy. Greater focus was needed on training, leadership and measuring and valuing CPD

Overall, in Ethiopia, the borrowed policy proved to be of value for schools and teachers, even though there was no clear link with student achievement. This value could be significantly enhanced by processes, both within and in support of the policy, which were more context-sensitive.

Table 5 presents a new model for policy borrowing in low-income countries which draws on the case study outcomes by including strengths and addressing weaknesses identified in Ethiopia, and emphasising the importance of context at all levels. Table 5 retains the

four stages of policy borrowing in the models presented in Chapter 2. However there are two significant differences in the new model: it is presented as a table and contextual influences are central at all stages. The circle in Phillips and Ochs' model implied an ongoing cyclical process which would suggest that once the first borrowed policy was internalised, it would lead directly to a search for new policies. In practice, the extended timescales and the scale of complexity and potential change involved in implementing borrowed policy meant that internalisation was effectively the last stage of the process for a specific policy. Any cyclical element was more likely to be reflected in the implementation and internalisation stages of the process rather than in a new cycle. Interactions between global influences and national policy development would be ongoing but successful internalisation would create a new context resulting from the impact of the borrowed policy on existing education processes so that further policy borrowing would require a new process. Table 5 is therefore presented in tabular form. The other significant change is to place context at the centre of the model. Context was not included in Phillips and Ochs' model (2003) although the authors acknowledged its importance. The new positioning reflects the critical importance of context and context sensitivity at all stages of the borrowing process as highlighted by Crossley (2010) and indicated in the Ethiopian case study. Table 5 identifies different contextual influences at each stage. These foci are hierarchical so policy assumptions based on international thinking, informed by contexts in the Global North, and on the national context will inform local and school developments which will also be informed by their own organisational and community contexts. This is a complex but critical aspect of the overall process which would benefit from detailed analysis. Complexity theory could provide a valuable lens for further work on these inter-meshing contextual influences (Morrison, 2006).

Table 5: Policy borrowing: implementation in low-income countries

	Stages	Key contextual influence	Approaches
1	Global influences	International	Partnership
2	National policy development	National	Consultation
3	Implementation	Local	Leadership Valuing
4	Internalisation	School and teacher	Ownership Collaborative working

At Stage 1 the new model indicates the importance of partnership in developing and implementing policy. The 2014 school survey found that good practice in CPD was associated with external partnership support from NGOs or a college or university. Similarly the case study findings suggested that CPD was more securely embedded in Amhara schools which had received NGO support. The World Bank has introduced partnership planning but with mixed success (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2014). Derebssa also identified the value of 'partnership approaches' in his analysis of student-centred learning (p.138, 2006). An agreed partnership approach could help minimise the problems of decisions by individual Ministers identified by Phillips and Ochs as 'phoney' or 'quick fix' (p. 455, 2003). In 2011 I experienced this problem in practice in MOE where a large number of free-standing initiatives meant that some schools received conflicting advice from different agencies while others, with similar or greater needs, received no support. A joined up partnership approach could involve an international team including membership from the Global South (Crossley, 2008) which could ensure clearer understanding of context and therefore better use of resources by reducing gaps between policy development and implementation. This is not an easy option as it would imply long term engagement in the field. However within the international aid community the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA website) already adopts a field-oriented approach based on the principle of 'gemba': dive into the field and work together with the people.

This could provide useful experience on the best means of securing greater mutual understanding through partnership.

Stage 2 in Table 5 emphasises consultation. The importance of consultation is acknowledged in the CPD Framework which states

'Stakeholders from all over the country …. have been consulted on this document. The extensive consultation process undertaken means that there is wide acceptance of the principles in this document' (p.15)

Clearly the authors believed that real discussion had taken place at all levels of the education service and that the outcomes were supportive of the new approach. It is difficult to reconcile this with the position eight years later when the findings showed there was still limited understanding of the processes and ambitions in the policy or of the implications of the practitioner-based approach. This may provide an example of the difficulties of undertaking consultation in low-income countries where the processes and language were unfamiliar (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2014) and participants could feel constrained about expressing their views (Ridley,2011). For more meaningful consultation in decentralised education systems it would be important to establish a genuinely open process to obtain the views of the local education officials who would be administering the policy and to take careful account of them in finalising arrangements. The comments of Principals and teachers would also be important. They would need to be consulted directly not just through the education hierarchy: this might require new processes to secure the professional voice in circumstances where representative structures such as teachers unions and subject teacher associations have previously been subject to pressure to conform. Meaningful consultation would require time, commitment and a willingness to respond. As this was likely to be difficult to achieve in practice, it might be helpful to first introduce small scale pilots based on school clusters as case study findings showed that the contribution of Cluster Supervisors could be significant in supporting implementation.

Stage 3 highlights the importance of leadership and valuing at the implementation stage. Principals and teachers needed to be clear on why the policy changes were worth making. Case study findings suggested that they were most likely to be engaged if there was a clear link with student learning in the classroom. This would require some means of measuring the outcomes of student learning: in Ethiopia work has been undertaken on student data (although with limited focus on performance data) and on school inspections using Ofsted processes (MOE) and also on teacher licensing (case study data). These systems may have value but it is important to avoid the dangers of distractions (such as the planning processes in the Framework) and of imposed regulation. Case study findings

on leadership reinforced the literature (Oplatka, 2004; Oduro and MacBeath, 2003; Zame et al, 2008, Workneh, 2012; Mitchell, 2015) by showing that Principals in Ethiopian schools had limited scope for educational leadership while the district education officials, who held power, were providing only process checking. Clear local leadership is important for successful policy implementation. This leadership should be provided in ways which are appropriate to the context, not necessarily at individual school level as in the Global North. However for successful policy implementation leadership responsibilities need to be identified, agreed and communicated with all parties so that there is no confusion. Leadership also needs to be delivered consistently in practice.

Stage 4 identifies the importance of ownership, which will reflect the local context, and of collaborative working at school level in securing internalisation of borrowed policy. Ownership of new policy by Principals and teachers is critical for successful implementation. Killick has clearly stated that lasting change can only be achieved where it is defined and championed locally (in Desai and Potter, 2008). The literature suggests that good practice in CPD requires teachers to be actively involved and meaningfully engaged with ideas, materials and other teachers (Fraser et al, 2007; Fullan and Miles, 1992; Little, 1993). Developing ownership of this type is not easy and is likely take considerable time even where the new policy was well-suited to its context. Clear, consistent educational leadership would help. Opportunities for teachers to share experience and work collaboratively would also support positive change although the Ethiopian experience shows that experience with these working practices could not be assumed and might need to be developed as part of the internalisation process.

The Ethiopian case study highlights the implications when borrowed policies are implemented with no consideration of differences in context. After 8 years, aspects of the CPD Framework were still not understood in schools: this could have meant that the policy was abandoned and had certainly delayed implementation. Within the policy there were assumptions based on a different context which meant that implementation in Ethiopia was hindered by an absence of leadership and school-level training. The case study showed that limited resources were targeted on education administrators rather teachers and on planning rather than on teacher and student learning. Above all, poorly qualified teachers in Ethiopia lacked the professional confidence and experience which would allow them to engage with the Framework without considerable external support.

These examples underline the importance and impact of context at all stages of policy borrowing but particularly at implementation. Context sensitivity needs to inform international thinking and partnerships at Stage 1 and national processes for consultation

at Stage 2. If this could be secured, it could encourage changes at the initial stages of policy identification and introduction which would also help implementation at Stage 3 and internalisation at Stage 4. However Guskey has emphasised that changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs are required for any real change in education (2002). It is therefore particularly important to find ways of understanding the experiences and perspectives of key stake-holders in their own context and of using this information to inform future policy borrowing. This is the intention of Table 5 which is based on data from school participants with direct experience of the CPD Framework in practice.

Chapter 7: Implications of the enquiry

This chapter draws from the theoretical literature (Chapters 2 and 4) and fieldwork findings and analysis (Chapters 5 and 6) to consider the implications of the enquiry for policy and practice on CPD in Ethiopia and for the related theoretical literature, including models for the analysis of policy borrowing in low-income countries. Conclusions also explore the limitations of the enquiry and areas for further research.

1. Implications for policy and practice in Ethiopia

The enquiry examines implementation of national CPD policy at school and classroom levels with data collected from practitioners in rural primary schools in Northern Ethiopia. The findings are informed by rich data detailing CPD in action as part of day to day school life. They are important as there has been no systematic monitoring of the CPD Framework; in particular, national policy makers and regional administrators have limited information about implementation in the rural primary schools which serve most of the country's growing population. These findings can therefore inform further progress on CPD in Ethiopia.

Overall the findings in Chapter 5 showed that the policy requirements of the CPD Framework were embedded in the sample schools. In spite of problems with planning, training and leadership, there was evidence of significant commitment to the Framework in schools, with CPD practice aligning closely to the policy. There were emerging changes in working practice on collaborative working and active learning linked to implementation of the Framework. However there was little evidence of progress towards the overall policy aim of improving student achievement. Further progress may have been hindered by a lack of clear leadership which could also address other issues which concerned participants in particular the availability of training and the valuing of CPD. This section builds on the enquiry findings to suggest some changes of approach which could help improve progress on further implementation of the Framework.

1.1 Aim and CPD cycle

The overall aim of the CPD Framework is 'to raise the achievement of students in Ethiopian schools' by establishing 'CPD which impacts on classroom practice to ensure improved student learning and achievement' (Framework, 2009, p.15). To achieve this aim, the policy drew on international research and experience and introduced plans and processes intended to develop the skills of classroom practitioners. The overall aim of

enhancing teachers' skills to improve student achievement remains important and relevant; indeed it may have greater profile in light of the SDG4 target for teacher education (SDG website). It is therefore important to consolidate the commitment to the Framework and to acknowledge and build on the progress on embedding it in schools. However changes of emphasis may be required to support further successful implementation.

The Framework relies heavily on planning with detailed requirements for needs analysis, priorities, modules and portfolios. The enquiry findings show that schools have made considerable efforts to establish this planning framework but are finding it difficult to move on from planning to doing CPD. The emphasis on planning may have reduced focus on the broader overall ambitions of improving teacher practice and student achievement. Certainly participants found it difficult to make clear links between CPD plans and student learning, and there was limited evidence of any real impact from the planning on either teacher development or student achievement. Further implementation of the Framework could therefore usefully focus back on the overall aim. This would mean de-prioritising the planning process, especially at individual teacher level, in favour of supporting and sharing local good practice on CPD activities.

The following paragraphs suggest some approaches on teaching methodology and leadership which could support this new focus.

1.2 Student –centred active learning

Student-centred learning has been Government policy in Ethiopia since 1994 but it has never enjoyed a high profile in schools. Schweisfurth (2011) has shown that there has been limited success in introducing student-centred education in low-income settings generally and has identified a number of barriers, including some associated with policy borrowing. Derebssa (2006) and Frost and Little (2014) have identified difficulties in introducing these approaches in schools in Ethiopia. In particular, Frost and Little have identified only 10.7% of class time spent on student-centred activities against the Government target of 30%.

In spite of this difficult background and the fact that the CPD Framework makes little direct reference to student-centred learning, the enquiry findings identified a close and positive association in participants' thinking between CPD and active learning, including reference to the use of active learning methods in the classroom. This unexpected finding provides an opportunity to support a renewed focus on student achievement and classroom

practice. In future, links between CPD and active learning could be made more explicit and could draw on local examples of classroom practice.

1.3 Experience sharing

It is difficult to find any clear reference to experience sharing in the reviewed literature. One possibility is the idea of ‘communities of practice’, updated to ‘learning community’, in Kennedy’s classification of types of CPD (Kennedy, 2005 and 2014).The CPD Framework makes reference to a ’learning community’(Framework,2009,p.6) and specifically states ‘All teachers must be actively engaged in sharing good practice with their colleagues’ (p.16). The term ‘experience sharing’ was listed but not defined in the Framework. Against this background it was unexpected to find that the concept of sharing experience was central to participants’ thinking on CPD. The term ‘experience sharing’ was used frequently and evidence was provided of teacher to teacher, whole school and school to school sharing based on the CPD Framework. Both the term and the activity seem to have assumed a greater prominence in practice than might have been expected from the limited references in the literature and the Framework: this could be an example of local adaptation as part of the process of internalising the policy (Phillips and Ochs, 2003).

This adaptation could be valuable in supporting further teacher development which focussed on student learning. Experience sharing meant that teachers were working together, usually in subject groups, rather than isolated in individual classrooms. Teachers found it helpful to work in this way and valued opportunities to learn from their colleagues, including those with more qualifications and experience. There is evidence of sharing across subject groups and also across schools with school CPD Co-Ordinators taking a lead, as in A2 (cross-Department sharing) and T5 (school-wide training). Schools also worked together in clusters with the Cluster Supervisor. In some cases, Cluster Supervisors supported individual schools (A3, A4) or groups of schools (T6). There were also some examples of cluster training (T6) and experience sharing (T4). These findings provide evidence of teacher to teacher and school to school collaboration based on the Framework. These new ways of working could provide opportunities for sharing good practice on teaching and learning as part of a new focus on enhancing student achievement. This in turn could contribute to progress on SDG4 where there is a stronger emphasis on learning outcomes.

1.4 Leadership

The enquiry highlights a vacuum in leadership of the CPD Framework. This may be due to different perceptions of leadership. In international thinking, school leadership is seen as

making an important contribution to school improvement, including improving teaching and learning (Leithwood, 2008). However in low-income countries like Ethiopia, the school principal has little power or influence and is responsible to local representatives of the national education system (Workneh, 2012; Mitchell, 2015). Clear leadership is likely to be important in securing continued implementation of the Framework. A renewed focus on student achievement would suggest that this leadership should be educational rather than bureaucratic.

This leadership could be provided within existing structures by revising the roles of school principals and education officials to ensure that leadership responsibility was clearly assigned and acknowledged. It might be possible to enhance the responsibilities of Ethiopian school principals in the management and development of teachers. The data showed two principals (T5, A2) who appeared to be undertaking an enhanced leadership role in CPD with some success even without official responsibility or leadership training. Mitchell (2015) specifically identified CPD as an area where Ethiopian principals could undertake a greater leadership role while E3, the training officer in Amhara REB, suggested there would be advantages in training principals directly rather than relying on cascade training through the woreda. This approach would mean a change in the status of principals which would be significant in context and might be seen as a further example of policy borrowing. In addition principals would need training and support in their new responsibilities.

An alternative approach would be to work within the existing arrangements but review the responsibilities and priorities for officials in the education hierarchy. There are significant numbers of these officials, many of whom have previous experience of teaching and working in schools. They currently focus on monitoring and checking processes (Cluster Supervisor at T6) and spend very little time in schools or working with teachers. This is a considerable resource which could be re-focussed to support CPD implementation using the school-based approaches identified in the literature (Little,1993;Guskey, 2002) and ensuring that teachers were actively involved (Fraser, 2007). With these additional skills, some of the training needs identified by participants could be addressed more effectively within schools by means of coaching, communities of practice and action research (Kennedy, 2005) building on successful arrangements for sharing experience . This re-focussing could also help with the valuing of CPD by emphasising the overall aim of improving student achievement rather than the processes involved.

1.5 Summary

The enquiry shows that the CPD Framework is embedded in schools in Ethiopia. As an example of policy borrowing, the Framework has some unusual elements including detailed planning requirements and a strong school and teacher focus. It has therefore required considerable commitment, an extended time period and some adaptation to achieve the current position. The key aims of the Framework have not yet been achieved but they remain important. This section has therefore suggested a revised focus for the next phase of implementation building on the successful local developments already achieved supported by clearer education leadership.

2. Implications for related theoretical literature

The literature review in Chapter 2 shaped the enquiry by identifying the research questions and the under-pinning concepts of context and policy borrowing. This section reflects back on the review and highlights important links between the enquiry findings and the theoretical literature.

The literature review emphasised the importance of global influences. The enquiry has reinforced the strength of these influences, in particular the World Bank, NGOs and overseas advisers (Spring, 2015). In Ethiopia, MOE officials were very ready to adopt recommendations from the World Bank to secure funding to support the national education system. This dependency relationship was so well established that national plans for education did not distinguish between global and national priorities (MOE). In addition, the CPD Framework, written by overseas advisers, has significantly influenced school practice.

Literature on CPD reflected both international and regional views. Much recent international literature has focussed on developed models of CPD, emphasising professionalism, accountability and transformation, which did not relate to participants' experience in Ethiopia. Overall more established international work (Little, 1993; Guskey, 2002; Kennedy, 2005 and 2014) proved more useful for this enquiry. A further issue was the apparent mis-match between research which identified effective CPD as school-based, teacher-lead and long-term (King and Newman, 2001; Armour et al, 2017) and teachers' actual experience of external, one-off workshops (Approva and Arbaugh, 2018).This was relevant for this enquiry as the CPD Framework was school-based and teacher-focussed while participants identified training with external workshops lead by experts. The lack of clarity in the international literature may have undermined the

opportunity to introduce a broader view of teacher education through the Framework. Literature on CPD or teacher education in low-income countries was limited overall reflecting its relatively low priority in the MDG era. The most useful contribution was work by Hardman et al (2011) presenting experience of CPD in other countries in East Africa.

Literature identifying the expectations of school leadership in low-income countries was significant in shaping this enquiry, in particular by pointing up tensions between the Framework policy and its new context which contributed to slow progress on implementation in spite of Government support. The findings of this enquiry reinforce work by Oplatka (2004), Mitchell (2015) and Workneh (2012) in particular.

The literature showed that the introduction of active learning had proved difficult in low-income countries (Schweisfurth, 2011; Thompson, 2013; Derebssa, 2006; O'Sullivan, 2002). The most unexpected finding in the enquiry was that active learning methodology was positively associated with the CPD Framework. Although the Framework does not include any detail on active learning and school participants had received no external training in CPD, teachers were able to provide detailed examples of different active learning methods, how they were used in class and their benefits for students. They made no reference to the challenges of active learning identified in the literature.

Literature on implementing borrowed policy was relatively limited. There were few examples and policy borrowing was sometimes an indirect rather than central focus. The enquiry has drawn on and reinforced work by Steyn (2010), O'Sullivan (2002), Oduro and MacBeath (2003) and Mitchell (2013). However it would have benefitted from further examples of policy implementation with more information on the policy context.

The literature emphasised the significance of context. Context was considered at all stages of the literature review, including the importance of recognising and acknowledging the embeddedness of home context (Ridley, 2011), the need for mediation and contextualisation in implementing borrowed policies (Schweisfurth, 2011; Thompson, 2013; O'Sullivan, 2002) and the dangers of context insensitivity (Crossley, 2008 and 2010; Dimmock and Walker, 2000). In addition, Hardman et al (2011) and Ridley (2011) identified aspects of SSA context which highlighted the significant differences between the contexts which informed the drafting of the CPD Framework and its implementation. The enquiry has underlined the importance of context awareness and the need for adjustment in implementing borrowed policy. Low-income countries may lack the capacity to make the necessary adjustments: for example, Louisy highlights this difficulty in St Lucia 'It is not easy to avoid the dangers of 'uncritical transfer' if one lacks the … capacity to undertake the type of research … necessary to 'customise' the experiences of others …' (2001,

p.435). This suggests that context sensitivity in exporting countries could be a more important factor than adaptation in receiving countries in securing successful implementation of borrowed policy. This would shift the focus towards exporting countries and earlier stages of the policy borrowing process.

Overall the findings of the enquiry have reinforced the theoretical literature on context and leadership, and highlighted gaps on CPD, active learning and implementation. The enquiry should constitute a useful addition to research in the areas where literature is limited.

3. Implications for models for the analysis of policy borrowing

Policy borrowing is a key concept for this enquiry which critiques a 'borrowed' CPD policy in Ethiopia. An adapted model for policy borrowing, based on work by Phillips and Ochs (2003), but focussing on global influences, implementation and context (Figure 2), was used to shape the literature review and identify the key concepts of policy borrowing and context. Enquiry findings on policy borrowing in Ethiopia have informed a new model for analysing policy borrowing in other low-income countries (Table 5).

The enquiry focused on policy implementation, rural schools and practitioners, all areas which have received limited attention in recent literature. The findings suggest that, in spite of the difficulties, borrowed policy can work within established systems and help introduce new approaches in teacher education. Endorsement by the education hierarchy meant that borrowed policy provided opportunities, which schools and teachers could use to their advantage, even when it was largely insensitive to its context. Phillips and Ochs (2003) have identified adaptation as an aspect of internalising borrowed policy. Fieldwork findings showed limited evidence of detailed policy adaptations but indirectly the CPD Framework provided a vehicle for changes in teaching practice and methodology. These changes may be relatively minor from the perspective of international CPD, but, given local start-points, they can be seen as a useful contribution to teacher education laying the foundations for improved teacher practice and student achievement. Overall the enquiry contributes to knowledge on implementation of borrowed policy and suggests that it may provide opportunities for positive changes in teaching practice even in difficult circumstances.

Table 5 presents a new model for analysing policy borrowing. It draws on learning from Ethiopian schools to inform future analysis and is intended to support international work to improve the quality of education in low-income countries by enhancing the skills of serving

teachers. It is important to identify ways in which learning from Ethiopia can contribute to this work as there has been little focus in the literature on the implementation of borrowed policy, especially where the contexts in the lending and receiving countries are significantly different. This new model should therefore help fill a gap in existing literature and inform practice at a time when SDG4 envisages closer links between improved teacher education in developing countries and international experience. It will need to be tested through practical application in other low-income countries to establish its relevance and value and should therefore contribute to further analysis and discussion.

The model developed to respond to RQ3 could therefore impact on opportunities to benefit teachers, students and the quality of education in low-income countries. The Ethiopian findings prompt re-consideration of the contribution of policy borrowing in teacher education. This is timely as SDG4 recognises that expanded opportunities for teacher education in low-income countries will require international cooperation (SDG website) effectively underlining the increased significance of policy borrowing. Table 5 suggests that progress on implementing teacher education policies would be improved if international partners were proactive in prioritising context awareness and sensitivity rather than relying on local adaptation to address contextual differences. Greater emphasis on partnership and consultation could also help secure more significant progress towards improved teacher learning and student achievement.

4. Implications for the methodological literature

The enquiry also has implications for the methodological literature considered in Chapter 4. Some approaches worked well in the field while others are discussed further in the section below on limitations of the enquiry. Issues of researcher positioning were particularly significant for this enquiry.

Overall the use of qualitative approaches worked well in this low-income setting. Rich data was collected enabling detailed understanding of the views of participants responsible for implementing the CPD policy in practice. Real-time entries in a field journal were helpful in contextualising interview data and in shaping the data collection process.

Researcher positioning was identified in Chapter 3 as an important aspect of context, an under-pinning concept for this enquiry. Literature on reflexivity and bias (Berger, 2015), insider-outside positioning (Milligan, 2016) and the challenges of cross-cultural research (Ryen, 2011) helped develop my theoretical understanding of researcher positioning. However the research experience itself served to underline both the significance of

positioning and the importance of researcher awareness at all stages of the research process.

The enquiry outcomes reflect my positioning as an experienced British education administrator and a volunteer adviser in MOE. My early experience of implementing the CPD Framework in the MOE was informed by an international understanding of CPD with progress assessed against criteria and expectations from my experience in England. I was frustrated by the lack of engagement and leadership and the failure to prioritise policy monitoring. In addition, my own policy monitoring in 2011 identified significant difficulties with practical implementation. Moreover a study, undertaken by another British educational professional in Amhara, highlighted similar problems of policy implementation in 2014 in one of my fieldwork sites. I therefore embarked on the field trip with low expectations including concerns that the Framework policy might not have survived or offered any practical value for teachers. However the fieldwork experience was positive: the logistics worked well; participation was good; the policy was embedded so that rich data was collected; there was genuine interest in my research. This experience was informed by changes in the environment in Ethiopia but also by my positioning as an independent researcher viewing developments through the eyes of the participants informed by Sarantakos' perspective of 'from the inside out' (2005) and evaluating progress on policy implementation in context rather than against external criteria or expectations. This is not easy for any researcher from the Global North (Ryen, 2011) and it is important to be transparent about the difficulties involved. In my case, extended previous experience in Ethiopia was helpful but the process would have been improved by more local links.

This experience exemplifies the importance of researcher positioning as an aspect of context. Ethiopia is a unique country with strong traditions which inform society and education. Researchers from the Global North are therefore confronted by an unfamiliar and challenging environment which they seek to analyse using assumptions, research techniques and language from a significantly different context. There will inevitably be tensions at the interface. Consideration of researcher positioning has therefore been an important contextual theme for this enquiry. The experience considered here should add to the literature on this subject and increase awareness of the danger that home context may be taken-for-granted. The issue of researchers from the Global North working in the Global South remains a difficult one. It is important to apply external academic skills to analysis of the significant problems in low-income countries. However this work needs to be context- sensitive and ideally undertaken in partnership with local researchers helping to develop capacity and cross-cultural research skills.

5. Limitations of the enquiry

Important limitations relate to data collection and researcher positioning. The approach to data collection could have been more innovative and refined. Two considerations influenced my thinking on data collection. Concerns about participation led me to believe that data would be very limited: the research design therefore focussed on obtaining sufficient data to answer the research questions. In addition, my earlier experience, reinforced by Ridley's analysis of student behaviour at the University of Addis Abeba (2011), led me to assume that participation would be even more difficult if I introduced focus groups or other more participatory approaches. These concerns led me to adopt a traditional interview approach in spite of the acknowledged problems. In the event, participation was good. In Tigray participation was secured through the intervention of the woreda. This was significant as it could have influenced participants' views. However comparison with Amhara data, where there was no similar intervention, showed no significant differences. Overall it was possible to collect considerably more data than I expected. In addition participants preferred to respond as a school group rather than as individuals, which presented opportunities which I had not anticipated and did not fully utilise.

Other issues in the data relate to generalisability, gender balance, triangulation and language. The justification for generalising from case study data has already been presented but this remains a weakness. Few women were interviewed; even when there were female participants, it was not always possible to capture their individual voices in groups with more confident male colleagues (T4). As no classroom observations were undertaken, it was not possible to check interview responses against practice in class. This could be seen as a particular limitation given the practitioner focus of the Framework. Findings were shared with REB officials but would have been improved by more discussion, especially with indigenous researchers.

An important limitation in the data collection was the use of English throughout. I have presented my reasons for taking this approach in Chapter 4 and still believe, on balance, that it was the right way forward. However there are some further points to make here. In Amhara there was an option, which I had not expected, of using E3 as an interpreter. I learnt afterwards that she had worked in this way before and had good understanding of the role. This could have been helpful for some school participants who found it difficult to fully express their views in English. In context of research on policy borrowing, the use of English may have carried unintended implications of status and dominance which were

not acknowledged or explored. The data from participants responding in an unfamiliar language was sometimes difficult to understand and more open to misinterpretation. It would also make it difficult for a researcher without any prior knowledge to replicate the enquiry.

Another important limitation relates to researcher positioning. This research has enhanced my understanding and context-sensitivity but it remained difficult to avoid assessing data against British contextual assumptions, which informed both my experience and the CPD Framework, rather than against the context experienced by participants. However enhanced context-sensitivity has given me a clearer understanding of the extent of the changes involved and may have led to more positive outcomes than in the early studies on implementing the Framework or in research by Fedeke (2014) and Akalu (2016). This underlines the need for enquiries of this type to be undertaken by researchers open to flexible and reflective approaches (Ryen, 2011) and ideally in partnership with indigenous researchers

6. Priorities for further research

Further research could help to address the limitations of this enquiry and further extend the contributions to knowledge. It would be useful to examine practice and outcomes in Ethiopia and other low-income settings using classroom observation (Mitchell, 2015) and more participatory methods which could allow other voices to be heard, in particular female teachers, students and community stakeholders. Opportunities for joint work with local researchers could be explored as a partnership approach could address concerns about researcher positioning and language, contribute to contextual understanding and encourage the development of research capacity and quality in low-income countries. Further research would help fill the gaps in the literature both on CPD in low-income countries and on policy borrowing. On CPD, it would be helpful to both policy makers and practitioners in low-income countries to have more information about approaches which work well in context and could contribute to progress towards the SDG target on teacher training. On policy borrowing it would be useful to focus on implementing policy and the impact of context, and to take opportunities to test the model presented here against experience in other low-income countries.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has considered the implications of this enquiry for the theoretical literature and for policy and practice. The enquiry findings have supported and will contribute to the

theoretical literature on CPD and policy borrowing. In Ethiopia, continued implementation of the CPD Framework would be supported by focussing clearly on ‘doing’ CPD, building on new working practices already introduced, and clarifying leadership responsibilities for the policy. A new model for the analysis of policy borrowing (Table 5) should support future analysis and successful implementation of borrowed policy on teacher education. This should contribute to achieving the education SDG through improvements in teacher learning in support of improved student achievement in low-income countries.

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Appendices

1. Interview questions

2. Programme for field trip

3. REB permission letters
   a) Tigray : for all schools
   b) Amhara : example of individual school permission letter

4. Basic schools data

5. Basic participant data

6. Introduction for all interviews

7. Risk assessment

8. Comparison of two regions

9. CPD Framework

Appendix 1: Interview questions

a) Schools

Basic data:

1. Name of school
2. Name of interviewee
3. Gender of interviewee
4. Role of interviewee
5. Number of years teaching/in role
6. Grade/age / number of students in class

CPD Questions:

1. What is CPD? And the purpose of CPD?
2. Have you read any documents about the CPD policy (MOE or local/ English or local language)? If yes, please give me some details.
3. Have you received any support or training on CPD?
4. What can you tell me about CPD in your school? (Prompts if necessary to cover the following: consultation, agreeing priorities, developing modules, training, monitoring, any general comments)
5. What are your current CPD priorities?
6. Have there been any changes in CPD processes to suit your school? If so, what changes and why?
7. From your experience of CPD, what has been easy? What has been difficult?
8. Give an example of something in CPD that went well: what happened? Why was it good? Who benefitted?
9. Give an example of a problem in CPD: what happened? What was the outcome? What are your reflections now?
10. Tell me about one change you made in your teaching during the last year. What did you do? What difference did it make: for you? for your students? Was the change the result of CPD?
11. What (other) changes have you seen as a result of CPD? In your classroom? In the school?
12. Apart from CPD what else has affected teacher learning/ student learning in this school?
13. If you could have any CPD or training, what would you ask for?

14. Do you have any other information you wish to add?

b) REBs and Woreda

Basic data

1. Name of REB/ woreda
2. Name of interviewee
3. Role and responsibilities of interviewee
4. Number of years in role

CPD

1. What is CPD? And the purpose of CPD?
2. Have you read the CPD policy?
3. Have you received support and training on CPD?
4. Have you given support and training on CPD? If so, please give details.
5. What can you tell me about CPD in your area? (Prompts: priorities, modules, training)
6. Has the REB/ woreda made any changes in CPD processes to suit your schools? If so, what changes and why?
7. From your experience of CPD, what has been easy? What has been difficult?
8. Give an example of something that went well: what happened? Why was it good? Who benefitted?
9. Give an example of a problem: what happened? What was the outcome? What are your reflections now?
10. What changes have you seen in your schools as a result of CPD?
11. Apart from CPD, what else has affected teacher learning and student learning in your schools?
12. If you could have any CPD or training for your schools, what would it be?
13. Do you have any other information you wish to add?

Appendix 2: Field trip programme

January/ February 2017

Day 1 – 3 Fly from London to Addis Ababa: acclimatise, make contacts, finalise arrangements

Day 4 – 13 Fly to Mekelle, Tigray: meet gatekeeper and REB, confirm transport, visit 6 primary schools, conduct interviews, record field observations and reflections, feedback to REB

Day 14 – 17 Break

Day 18 – 26 Fly to Bahir Dar, Amhara: meet gatekeeper and REB, confirm transport, visit 6 primary schools, conduct interviews, record field observations and reflections, feedback to REB

Day 27 – 29 Fly to Addis and back to London

Appendix 3: REB Permission letters

ቢሮ ትምህርቲ ክልል ትግራይ
Education Bureau
ቁልፊ ክይዲ ስራሕ ልምዓት መምህራንን ኣመራርሓ ትምህርትን
Teachrs And Educational Leaders Development core process
☎414407 P.O.Box 19 Fax 403963 Mekelle/መቐለ

ቁፅሪ 73/13-14434/50/35
ዕለት 19-05-09

ናብ ሕንጣሎ ወጀራት ቤት ፅሕፈት ትምህርቲ

ዓዲጉደም ፣

ዋኒኑ፡- ትሕብብር ምሕታት ይጥምት

ሚስተር ፒተርን ሚስስ ብራንዳ ዝተብሃሉ ኣብ ተኽታታሊ መማሓየሺ ሙያ ፅንዓት ንምክያድ ኣብ ኣብያተ ትምህርቲ ዝባን ኣልበ፡ ዓደርቃ፡ ዓዲሃና፡ ዳንሱ፡ ሃገረሰላምን ጉምስላሰን ዑደት ብምግባር ንርእሰመምህራንን መምህራንን ቃለ መሕትት ብምክያድ መፅናዕቲ ክካይዱ ስለዝደለዩ ዘድልይ ምትሕብባር ክግበረሎም ንሕብር። ንዝግበረሎም ትሕብብር እውን ኣዓቐዲምና ክነመስግን ንፎትው።

ምስ ሰላምታ

ተኽሉ ፅቂር
ፈፃሚ ስልጠና

የአማራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግሥት ትምህርት ቢሮ
Amhara National Regional State Education

ቁጥር ት/በ3/147/መርሱ-3/4

ቀን 03/06/2009

Yekatit 23/
ለ የካቲት 23 ፕሮጀ መጀ/ደ//ሙ/ሳ/ት/ቤት ፤

ጉዳዩ:- ትብብር እንዲደረግላቸው ስለመጠየቅ ፤

ለፒኤችዲ ትምህርታቸው ማሟያ የሚሆን ጥናት በተከታታይ ሙያ ማሻሻያ ዙሪያ እየሰሩ ያሉት እንግሊዛዊት ተመራማሪ Brenda Bignold ለጥናታቸው የሚረዳ መረጃ ለመሰብሰብ ከመረጧቸው 6 የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምርት ቤቶች መካከል የእናንተ ትምህርት ቤት አንዱ ነው፡፡ስለሆነም ተመራማሪዋ መረጃ ለመሰብሰብ በሚመጡበት ጊዜ በእናንተ በኩል አስፈላጊው ትብብር እንዲደረግላቸው እንጠይቃለን፡፡

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☎ስልክ/TelNo 058 220 1099 /058 226 52 34 ፋክስ/Fax 058 222 0814 ፖ.ሳ.ቁ P.O.B 764
ጥራት ያለው ትምህርት ለሁሉም Quality Education For All!

Appendix 4: Basic schools data

School	Students	Teachers	CPD priorities
T1	833		Improving student achievement, grades 1 - 4 Improving student achievement, grades 5 - 8 Applying teacher guides
T2	311		To involve our community to improve achievement in every subject to develop the curriculum of clubs
T3	819		To improve low participation To improve student discipline Department priority
T4	745		To improve planning To improve teaching and learning To scale up professional skills
T5	666		To improve active learning To build capacity in planning To improve reading and writing in Tigrinya
T6	410		To improve English To improve Mathematics To support the community
A1	2743	69	To improve skills in English, Maths, Science To develop active learning To develop continuous assessment
A2	1029	39	To improve skills in English To conduct continuous assessment To improve preparation of exams

A3	2169	48	Improve use of teaching aids Develop teaching methodology Department priority
A4	1929	47	Active learning Continuous assessment Departmental priority
A5	1700	41	Continuous assessment Improving student achievement Departmental priority
A6	3500	71	Tutorial programme for weak students Improve student behaviour Departmental priority

Notes

1. All schools taught students from grade 1 to 8 (aged 7 to 15)
2. The chart records information collected from schools. This was often different from published information.
3. The official PTR was 1:50 but varied in practice.

Appendix 5: Basic data on participants

School	Role	Gender	Experience	Grade	Subject
T1	Principal	M	10 years teaching 1.5 at school		
	Teacher	M	5 years, 3 at school	5 to 8	English
T2	Principal	M	20 years, 1 at school		
	Teacher	M	12 years	7 and 8	English
T3	Principal	M	25 years		
	Teacher	M	6 years	5 to 8	English
	Teacher	M	8 years	5 to 8	English
T4	Principal	M	4 years		
	Teacher	M		5 to 8	Natural Science
	Teacher	M		4	Biology
	Teacher	F	First year	5 and 6	English
T5	Principal	M			
	Coordinator	M	12 years	5 to 7	Social Science
	Teacher	M	7 years	5 to 8	English
T6	Principal	M	15 years		
	Cluster Supervisor	M			
A1	Principal	M	9 years, 3 at school		
	Coordinator	M		8	Physics
	Teacher	M		8	English
A2	Principal	M	First year at school		
	Coordinator	M			Science
	Teacher	F			English
A3	Coordinator	M	11 years	5 to 8	Social Science
	Teacher	M	12 years	5 to 8	English
A4	Principal	M	5 years at school		
	Cluster Supervisor	M			
	Teacher	M		8	English
	Coordinator	F		8	Amharic

A5	Principal	M	6 years	
	Vice Principal	M	2 years	
	Coordinator	F		Mathematics
	Teacher	M		English
A6	Vice Principal	M	3 years, 8 years as Principal	
	Teacher	M	4 years, 10 years as Principal	English

Appendix 6: Introduction for all interviews

Introduction: My name is Brenda Bignold. I am studying for a Doctorate (PhD) in Education at the University of Bath in England. I have worked in education throughout my career. In 2011 (five years ago) I was working in the Ministry of Education in Addis as an Adviser on the CPD policy. I am now researching implementation of the CPD policy at school level. My husband Peter Bignold is helping me collect data for my research. I have permission from the REB to visit the school and (from the Director) to speak to you.

Context for the interview: I want to collect information on the implementation of the CPD policy at school level. To do this I am visiting primary schools and speaking to those involved with CPD including Directors, Co-ordinators and teachers. Thank you for seeing me: your comments are very important for my research.

When I return to England I will analyse all the information I have collected and will write it up to complete my thesis. I will use your comments but not your name in my research. I promise that your comments will be treated in confidence and that they will be anonymous in any published work.

I want to ask questions about your experience of CPD. It will take about 40 minutes. Your answers will not be shared with anyone in the school or the area. Anything you can tell me will be relevant and helpful: there are no right answers. If you do not understand or you are not happy with any of the questions, you can stop the interview at any time. I would like to record our discussion and take notes to be sure that I have an accurate record of your answers.

Are you happy to go ahead with the interview? Are you happy for us to record your answers?

(if yes, turn on the recorder)

Interviewer: This is the record of interview 1 at School A on (date) at (time). We need to record your agreement. Have you been given information about the interview? Are you happy to go ahead?

Questions: Basic data and CPD questions

Conclusion: Do you have any questions? Do you have any feedback?

The interview ends at (time) (Turn off the recorder)

Thank you very much for taking part in this interview and supporting my research. If you want to contact me my email is [redacted]. When I have completed my research I will ask the REB to share my findings with the people who have helped me.

Appendix 7: Risk assessment

	Risk	Mitigation	Outcomes
1	State of emergency -	Checked FCO and local contacts	No problems
	threat to travel and	Delayed booking the trip	Restrictions in Amhara were
	personal safety	Postponed start date to allow time for things	amended before the start of the
		to calm down	trip
		Rearranged the programme to spend more	
		time in Tigray, the safer area	
2	No permission to visit	Used local gate-keepers to establish contact	Both REBs were supportive: they
	schools	with REBs in advance	provided permission to visit
		Arranged early meetings with REBs	schools and asked for feedback
3	Schools were not	The trip was scheduled for the middle of the	In Amhara the timing was good.
	available	school year, avoiding national holidays. It was	In Tigray the schools were on their
		the dry season when travel would be easiest.	break but support from REB
		The timing was checked in advance with local	meant Principals and teachers
		gate-keepers	attended for interviews
4	CPD is not important -	Checked in advance with gate-keepers and	CPD processes were embedded
	interviewees have	local contacts. Early discussion with REBs to	School awareness was good. Links
	nothing to say	establish policy context	between CPD and licensing made
			the timing good
5	Interviews could not	Checked with gate-keepers and REBs.	All interviews were conducted
	be conducted in	Considered but rejected the option of using	successfully in English.
	English	translators. Used previous experience and	Interviewees had mixed ability in
		adjusted usage	English which may affect the data

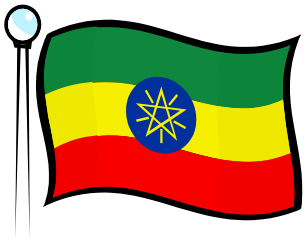
(Undertaken during fieldwork)

Appendix 8: Comparison of two regions

Comparing data collection across Tigray and Amhara Regions	
Tigray	Amhara
School break	Normal school sessions
Mainly separate interviews	Mainly group interviews
Selected staff only	All staff in school so more involved
Better English	More support with English
	including discussion in Amharic
All rural schools	Two city schools
Smaller schools up to 1000	Larger schools up to 2500
Sample comprised largest, oldest	Sample selected by CPD team in
schools constructed by EYES	REB
Good awareness of CPD	Good awareness of CPD
Good evidence of CPD processes	Good evidence of CPD processes
Good engagement	Good engagement

Appendix 9: CPD Framework

The following policy document from MOE Ethiopia is free-standing with page references relating to the document rather than to the enquiry.



Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leaders and Supervisors in Ethiopia

The Framework

October 2009

Ministry of Education

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

Contents

Acronyms

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ADRC	Academic Development Resource Centre
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
APDE	Analyse, Plan, Do, Evaluate
CV	Curriculum Vitae
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CRC	Cluster Resource Centre
CTE	College of Teacher Education
EC	Ethiopian Calendar
EMIS	Educational Management Information System
ETP	Education and Training Policy
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IFESH	International Foundation for Education and Self Help
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
REB	Regional Educational Bureau
SIP	School Improvement Programme
TDP	Teacher Development Programme
TEI	Teacher Education Institution
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WEO	Woreda Education Office
ZEO	Zone Education Office

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Teacher CPD Development, 2005 – 2008

The Education and Training Policy (ETP) set high standards for teachers and described a new approach to education. At the heart of this new approach was the promotion of more active learning, problem solving, and student centred teaching methods. Research surveys showed that with the expansion of education and large class sizes, teachers still relied largely on teacher centred methods with limited opportunities for CPD. The policy clearly indicated that emphasis should be given to upgrading and updating both in pre-service and in-service teachers. It was recognised that teachers were the key to school improvement and therefore a programme of In Service CPD was developed in 2005. A CPD Guideline was produced outlining the new strategies and courses developed for the induction of newly deployed teachers and for CPD priority programmes.

The newly deployed teachers were expected to work through a two year induction programme, produced at national level and supported by mentors. These mentors were selected from experienced members of staff in the school.

All other teachers were expected to carry out the CPD programme produced at national level. This programme consists of three course books which teachers worked through in small groups within a school or cluster of schools. Each course consisted of 3 units covering aspects of teaching and learning and school ethos. The groups were designed to be led by facilitators, usually selected from experienced members of the school staff. The expectation was that these groups would meet at least once every two weeks.

It was expected that REBs and woredas would also produce CPD training manuals to supplement the courses produced at national level.

TDP1 CPD Impact study, 2008

At the end of three years of CPD development a TDP 1 Impact Study was carried out by Haramaya University.

Their major findings were as follows.

1. The study generally revealed that in nearly four out of five schools the structure of CPD is either absent or inadequate.
2. Nearly all (29 of 31) CRCs sampled were not adequately prepared to run well organised, inspiring and transforming CPD activities.
3. In schools where CPD has begun teachers are however, able to demonstrate a reasonable mastery of the contents (of the CPD courses) they covered before and up to the time of the study.

There were six major challenges identified

1. Failure to synchronize the career structure and the CPD values and activities
2. CPD facilitators' high turn over
3. Time constraints on teachers as well as their school leaders
5. CPD program's lagging behind its time and the tendency of rushing to cover the course
6. Total absence or inadequacy of the minimum resources required to run CPD
7. Lack of systematic collaboration and coordination between Education Bureaus, TEIs and NGOs

'Unless we find solutions to the above challenges, the vision to produce professionally well informed and motivated teachers capable of transforming the quality of educational delivery will not be fulfilled'

Their recommendations were as follows.

1. The MoE, together with the regional, zonal and woreda education offices should develop a clear, transparent and self controlling CPD structure which clearly stipulates terms of references for responsibilities for how CPD should be run, evaluated and improved.
2. The goals and objectives of the CPD programme should be clearly defined and delineated so that stakeholders build shared visions and understanding among themselves and there is no room for ambiguities, uncertainties or excuses for not implementing it.

3. CPD structure and outcomes should be regularly monitored and evaluated. The existing collaboration between TEIs and schools through practicum could be used to develop monitoring and assessment systems for CPD.

4. A Guideline must be produced to synchronise CPD with the career structure.

5. Raising awareness of CPD at schools and teacher level is important.

'CPD should be driven by a coherent long-term plan to improve teacher effectiveness and student learning. In other words CPD should be structured, monitored and renewed systematically. If CPD is organized this way, schools start functioning as an effective learning community, supporting a climate of productive professional practice for teachers and ultimately facilitating an environment conducive to student learning. Only adequacy in the overall structure of CPD and improvement in its management at the level of schools bolster the potential of CPD to effect in individual teachers' intellectual and leadership capacity and enable schools to build the system for embedded professional learning.'

As a result of this impact study the Ministry of Education commissioned a Situational Analysis which included a Teacher Needs Analysis. The recommendations from the and Situational Analysis and the TDP 1 Impact Study were used as a basis for developing a new framework for CPD.

1.2 Rationale

The content of this document is based on recommendations from international and national research stated in the Situational Analysis 'Towards a New Framework for Teacher CPD in Ethiopia'. The international research was taken from five different countries and a wide range of publications. The national research was in the form of a Needs Analysis conducted by the Ministry of Education.

1.2.1 International Research

Over the last twenty years there has been a considerable amount of research, both qualitative and quantitative, into the nature, effectiveness and impact of Teacher Continuous Professional Development.

This research looked at experiences in both developed and developing countries, and identified the following continuum of teacher learning.

1. A teacher's first experience is the '*apprenticeship of observation*'. This means that they are deeply affected by the ways in which they were taught at school, and these attitudes are deeply ingrained.
2. Teachers then take part in pre-service training.
3. In their first year(s) of teaching they take part in an Induction Programme.
4. **Teachers then participate in Continuous Professional Development until the end of their career.**

The research has shown that a very strong consensus has emerged around a number of key themes and principles as follows.

Legislation on CPD
Currently in most countries of the world, teacher CPD is not mandatory. However this voluntary nature is increasingly changing. Governments in both developed and developing countries are introducing legislation concerning CPD and linking it to career structure and appraisal. The legislation also covers terms and conditions of service such as minimum teaching time and minimum CPD time.

Ineffectiveness of workshop/seminar methodology in CPD
Research shows that the workshop method can only be effective if it is used as a part of a planned series of activities or workshops linked together through specific tasks or activities. Used on its own it rarely leads to long term changes in teaching, or to a lasting impact in the classroom. A single workshop is 'an ineffective, inefficient and costly investment of human and fiscal resources' (Schwille, Leu, et al 2005).

Ineffectiveness of the cascade model of CPD

This well-used approach in both developed and developing countries begins at the top with the ideal of what is to be learnt. This ideal is introduced to a select group of trainers and they then transmit the ideal to the next level, and so on. This method relies on the information being passed on with the same level of understanding. However, at each level the ideals get diluted, so that by the time they reach the end user (the teacher), very little of the original information is transmitted. This in turn means that teachers are unlikely to use this information to change their teaching or the students' learning.

Both workshops and the cascade method are symptomatic of a 'top down' approach and, in both developed and developing countries, questions are raised about what happens to the skills learnt by the teacher at the workshop or training. Because there is often a lack of infrastructure, and/or a sufficient system of support, teachers usually return to their school and classroom with little opportunity for feedback, little or no resource material and a lack of structure for introducing change.

According to research, the most effective School CPD has the following characteristics.

- A broad definition that aims at improving the teacher's performance in the classroom. It covers a wide range of activities, both formal and informal. It is integrated into the work of the teacher, not an 'add on'. It is based on real situations, ongoing over time with assistance and support as required.
- It is based on classroom practice. CPD needs to be conducted in school settings and linked to school wide efforts. Teachers work with each other, observing each other, planning lessons together, team teaching and undertaking action research together. The importance of teachers talking together about their practice cannot be exaggerated. These processes need to be frequent and regular within the school.
- It deals with subject content and teaching strategies. Teachers can only improve their classroom practice if they work on their understanding of the subject allied with a variety of teaching strategies that enable students to learn better.
- It has clear procedures for identifying and aligning training needs. CPD in all countries attempts to meet needs at a number of levels: that of the individual teacher, that of the school, and that of the nation. Institutions must have a clear structure for identifying priorities and CPD. It is important to have an annual CPD plan to meet the needs and priorities and the range of activities required. National priorities need to be shared with all teachers and integrated into the work of the institutions with their own priorities.
- It identifies and makes use of excellent classroom practitioners. The use of 'expert teachers' to work with colleagues within their own school and with other schools has been very successful in both developed and developing countries. It is most effective when the 'expert teacher' remains within the institution.
- It recognises the importance of informal systems within institutions and the locally available resources.
- CPD activities model the processes which are being learned. Because CPD, particularly in developing countries, is often concerned with introducing new behaviour and attitudes often radically different from previous experience, then CPD activities must clearly reflect this. Teachers learn more effectively through active learning and learning by doing than through lectures and direction. Thus active learning, participation and involvement must be part of the CPD process if these are the intended principles.

- There is clear local educational leadership. The role of the institution's leadership is crucial. Institution leaders have to recognise themselves as educational leaders and must be involved in the identification of the institutional CPD needs and the planning of activities. Leaders must also be involved in the CPD activities, and conduct formal professional discussions with staff.

The most effective forms of professional development seem to be those that focus on clearly articulated priorities, providing on-going school based support to classroom teachers, deal with subject matter content as well as suitable instructional strategies and classroom management techniques and create opportunities for teachers to observe, experience and try out new teaching methods
(OECD, 2005:128)

Characteristics of effective professional development include:

- programmes conducted in school settings and linked to school wide efforts
- teachers participating as helpers to each other and as planners, with administrators, of in-service activities
- emphasis on self-instruction and with differentiated training opportunities
- teachers in active roles, choosing goals and activities for themselves
- emphasis on demonstration, supervised trials and feedback
- training that is concrete and on-going over time
- ongoing assistance and support available upon request

(Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990)

1.2.2 National Research

Recommendations from the Ministry of Education Needs Analysis Research Project

Needs Analysis research carried out by the MoE with teachers and REB officials in all regions of Ethiopia resulted in the following recommendations for CPD. These recommendations are at the heart of this new framework.

- There should be a shared and common understanding of what is meant by teacher CPD.
- There should be national, regional, zonal and woreda awareness training on the nature and purpose of CPD.
- Teachers should have ownership of their CPD. They should be involved in identifying their own needs and the needs of their school, and in planning appropriate training.
- CPD should continue to concentrate on teaching methodology and understanding and responding to the learning needs of all students.
- CPD should also deal with the subject-specific needs of teachers and their desire to improve their competencies in the use of English.
- There must be adequate supplies of national manuals and CPD resources.
- The language of the materials must be appropriate for the teachers. This should involve translation into local languages and the simplification of language.
- Training for the CPD facilitators and mentors is essential.
- There must be clear guidelines on the purpose, content and format of portfolios.
- There should be greater variety in the way that CPD is delivered with a concentration on sharing experiences with colleagues.
- There should be specific Leadership and Management training for supervisors and directors, especially on the nature and purpose of CPD.

> "…… if teachers are to become reflective practitioners and users of active learning methods they must participate in professional development programmes that advocate and use these same models" (Leu, 2005)

1.3 CPD Links to Career Ladder, Teacher Professional Competencies and Appraisal

CPD is a compulsory requirement for those who teach in all Ethiopian educational establishments.

It is the civic and professional duty of all educators to engage in Continuous Professional Development.

It follows that the commitment of an individual teacher to their own CPD is essential. The **'National Framework for Professional Competencies of Teachers'** clearly sets out the core competencies that all Ethiopian teachers need in order to progress through the professional career ladder.

As stated in the 'National Framework for Professional Competencies of Teachers', the following five Professional Competencies taken together represent the role of the Ethiopian teacher.

1. **Facilitating Student Learning** outlines how teachers plan, develop, manage and apply a variety of teaching strategies to support quality student learning.

2. **Assessing and reporting student learning outcomes** describes how teachers monitor, assess, record and report student learning outcomes.

3. **Engaging in Continuous Professional Development** describes how teachers manage their own professional development and contribute to the professional development of their colleagues.

4. **Mastery of Education and Training Policy (ETP), curriculum and other programme development initiatives** describes how teachers develop and apply an understanding ETP to contribute to curriculum and/or other programme development initiatives.

5. **Forming partnerships with the school community** describes how teachers build, facilitate and maintain working relationships with students, colleagues, parents and other care givers to enhance student learning.

In order to develop these competencies, the principles and rationale of this document “Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Framework” need to be applied. In order to practise these competencies, teachers need to plan and carry out their Continuous Professional Development in a systematic way.

The high priority given to teachers’ CPD is demonstrated by the fact that it forms one of the five Professional Competencies. Achievement in the other four Professional Competencies depends on a teacher’s commitment to participate in high quality CPD.

1.4 CPD Links to the School Improvement Programme

All Ethiopian schools are required to produce School Improvement Plans in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning. CPD is an essential part of School Improvement.

> "School Improvement is not an isolated process administered by higher level administrators. Rather, teachers are crucial to school improvement and are pivotal in promoting high levels of achievement in all their students"
> (Simpkins March 2009).

The School Improvement Programme starts with the process of self assessment and the setting up of a School Improvement Committee. After all stakeholders have been consulted, School Improvement Plans are written.

The School Improvement Programme in Ethiopia is divided into four domains:

1. Learning and Teaching
2. Student Environment
3. Leadership and Management
4. Community Involvement

Each school is expected to identify its own priorities for improvement in these domains, and these will form the basis of its School Improvement Plan.

These priorities will almost certainly include the need for continuous professional development, either at classroom or leadership level.

"Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Framework", "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit", and the **School Improvement Programme (SIP)** should not be seen in isolation, but used together to provide a holistic approach to the improvement of learning and teaching in each institution.

1.5 Aim of the National CPD Framework

The overall aim of *"Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Framework"* is to raise the achievement of students in Ethiopian schools.

The objective of this Framework and the accompanying Toolkit is to provide teachers throughout Ethiopia with a clear structure and rationale for Continuous Professional Development. It is based on the best national and international practice and designed to function in the Ethiopian context.

As a result of the implementation of this framework, all school teachers, leaders and supervisors, in all regions of Ethiopia, will be participating in high quality and appropriate Continuous Professional Development which impacts upon classroom practice to ensure improved student learning and achievement.

This is achieved by a needs-based programme of activities which allows all teachers to improve their knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they become more effective classroom practitioners and contribute positively to community development.

This framework is supported by other documents produced at MoE level. The first of these, **"Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leaders and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit"** explains how to apply the new CPD Framework for teachers in schools. This document is referred to in the Framework.

Stakeholders from all over the country – REB officials, zone officials, woreda officials, supervisors, directors, teachers, and instructors from tertiary education – have been consulted on this document.

The extensive consultation process undertaken means that there is wide acceptance of the principles contained in this document. *"Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Framework"* aims to improve teacher effectiveness and student achievement.

1.6 Scope

This Framework and the accompanying Toolkit is for use by primary and secondary school teachers, school leaders, and all supervisors who are involved with supporting, monitoring and inspecting schools. It is also relevant for Alternative Basic Education and Adult Education Facilitators.

It should also be used by any organisation that is involved in providing CPD modules or support for teachers, including TEIs and NGOs.

2 The Nature and Purpose of Continuous Professional Development

2.1 What is CPD?

> "Anything that makes me a better teacher!"

The aim of Continuous Professional Development is to improve the performance of teachers in the classroom in order to raise student achievement and learning. It is a career-long process of improving knowledge, skills and attitudes, centred on the local context and particularly classroom practice.

All teachers must be actively engaged:

- in understanding what is meant by good teaching
- in their own learning process
- in identifying their own needs
- in sharing good practice with their colleagues
- in a wide range of activities, formal and informal, that will bring about improvement of their own practice and the practice of others.

This definition of CPD has been compiled from consultation with a wide group of stakeholders including individual teachers, directors and supervisors, Regional Education Bureau officials and other educational professionals including international volunteers and officials at the Ministry of Education.

In Ethiopia Continuous Professional Development can be placed into two categories.

'Updating' is a continuous process in which every professional teacher participates during their career as a teacher. It focuses on subject knowledge and pedagogy and improves classroom practice.

'Upgrading' is the process by which teachers can choose to participate in additional study outside their regular work as a teacher at appropriate times in their career, eg convert a certificate to a diploma, a diploma to a first degree, or a first degree to a master's degree.

2.2 What is Good Teaching?

From the consultation process, and from other professional discussions in Ethiopia, the components of 'Good Teaching' have been categorised under four headings: professional knowledge and understanding, teaching skills, values and attitudes and the ability to create a good environment for learning.

1. Professional Knowledge and Understanding

Good teaching is when a teacher:

- uses wide and up-to-date subject knowledge of the curriculum
- displays a good understanding of classroom pedagogy
- has a broad understanding of the impact of the teachers' role in the local community, is aware of national and local initiatives and priorities, and includes them in teaching programmes

2. Teaching Skills

Good teaching is when a teacher:

- plans effectively for student involvement and learning
- gives clear learning objectives and provides students with the skills necessary for study and learning
- uses a wide variety of active teaching methods and strategies, appropriate to the learning preferences of the students

- relates subject matter to the everyday lives of the students
- encourages student participation and problem solving attitudes
- rewards and praises progress and challenges poor performance or behaviour
- is aware of the individual progress and learning needs of each student
- treats all students fairly and with respect
- is reflective about classroom practice
- is a competent assessor of student progress and provides effective student feedback

3. Values and attitudes

Good teaching is when a teacher:

- has a love of the profession
- has a hunger for learning and self-improvement
- forms excellent working relationships with colleagues
- cares for the progress and wellbeing of students
- fosters inclusion and equal opportunities within the classroom and institution
- sets high standards and has high expectations of the students

4. Learning Environment

Good teaching is when a teacher:

- maintains an attractive and supportive learning environment
- creates a safe and ordered environment in which all students are able to learn
- uses a wide range of appropriate teaching aids and materials, including locally available resources

This definition of good teaching forms the basis for professional development for this framework.

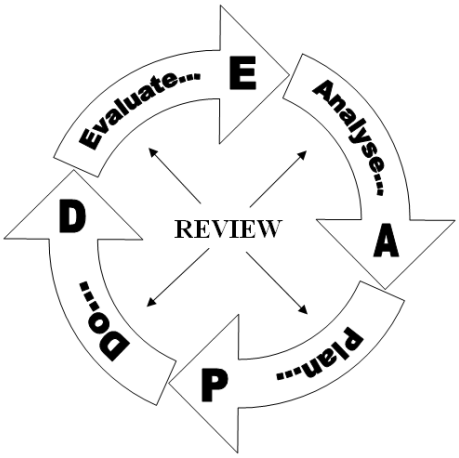
These characteristics create effective student learning.

Each one must be addressed at some point in the continuous learning of all professional teachers and should form the core of any CPD programme.

2.3 The CPD Cycle

"The CPD Cycle is a carefully planned response to identified development needs"

At each level - individual, group, institution, woreda, zone, region, national - the CPD cycle is similar.



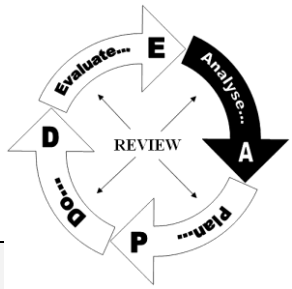
Each institution must have a CPD Plan which outlines the CPD priorities for the year.

The wider educational authorities (WEOs, ZEOs, REBs and the MoE) should also publish their own annual CPD development plans in consultation with all stakeholders.

When writing their own annual plans, these wider authorities should ensure that they leave time for schools, colleges and universities to carry out their institutional priorities.

Further advice on the CPD process is to be found in the document "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit"

The CPD Cycle – "Analyse"



All CPD programmes will have the following similar characteristics.

- **The programme will be carried out in order to address the learning or development need of an individual, groups of individuals or an identified need of an institution.**
- **The need will have been identified by a process of needs analysis or review.**

The table below sets out some examples of how CPD can arise from a needs analysis.

Stakeholders by category	***Responsibility for needs analysis and review***	***Context of the needs analysis***	***An Example (there are more examples in the CPD Toolkit)***
An individual teacher	The individual	• Meeting with mentor or supervisor • Self reflection in the classroom • Preparation for a new job or responsibility	Following self assessment, peer review and an annual appraisal, a teacher agrees that one of three CPD priorities for the next year is to improve their knowledge of assessment.
A group of teachers within an institution	The group leader	• Regular group meeting • Introduction of new initiative • Reviewing a previous initiative	Through a needs analysis, the Mathematics Department of a secondary school identifies that one of their three CPD Priorities for the next year is learning to use more participatory methods in lessons
A school	The Head Teacher	• Annual School Review • Annual CPD Plan Evaluation • Introduction of a new initiative	As a part of the analysis process, the Director and members of the CPD committee identify punctuality and attendance as one of the main areas for development in the preparatory school. This need is adopted as one of three School CPD priorities.

Stakeholders by category	***Responsibility for Needs Analysis and Review***	***Context of the needs analysis***	***An Example (there are more examples in the CPD Toolkit)***
A group of institutions	The Head Teachers' of a cluster of schools	• Head Teachers' consultation meeting • Professional discussions with colleagues • Annual Appraisal process	The cluster has identified a common concern in the quality of the mentors for NDTs in their schools.
A woreda/sub city	The Head of the Education Section of the woreda/sub city	• A Supervisors' team meeting • Stakeholders' consultation meeting • Educational planning review	The woreda/sub city has identified a need to increase community participation in education.
A region or zone	The Head of the REB	• An Experts' team meeting • Stakeholders' consultation meeting • Regional CPD Plan evaluation	A REB identifies a need to monitor and develop the use of first language used by teachers in Grades 1 to 4.
The Nation	Experts at the Ministry of Education	• Consultation meeting with Experts and other educational professionals • National examination results • Policy Review conference	The Ministry of Education has identified that Population and Family Life together with Reproductive Health are important issues for Ethiopians to address.

More comprehensive information on analysing needs for School CPD can be found in the document "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit"

The CPD Cycle – "Plan"

Once the development need has been identified, a programme, specifically designed to meet that need, can be prepared.

Institution planning

Each institution should develop Annual CPD Plans. This is done by prioritising the issues identified by the analysis process. Three main priorities are recommended for each academic year. It is more effective to concentrate on fewer priorities and cover them well.

Once the priorities are selected, the Annual CPD Plan should be completed. This document should describe each priority, identify the desired outcomes, say who is responsible for leading it, and how long it will take.

A programme for each priority should then be written, which details events and timings.

Individual planning

Individual CPD Plans should also be developed annually. Some priorities for individuals will come from their institution's priorities. Some will be issues identified by the individuals themselves.

An individual teacher's Annual CPD Action Plan should be kept in their Teacher's Professional Portfolio, and used as a guide to the type of information and evidence collected during the year.

There are many ways to address a CPD need. The programme should be designed to be appropriate to the need, the context, the circumstances and available resources.

The document "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit" contains examples of programmes and activities appropriate to particular needs. Suggestions of ways in which effective CPD modules can be constructed from a series of smaller sessions are also described.

The CPD Cycle – "Do"

Participating in CPD can involve formal and informal sessions. It is essential that these sessions are linked together to form a coherent programme. The methods and activities chosen should be appropriate to the needs identified.

Some CPD methods which have successfully been used to facilitate professional development are:

CPD Methods

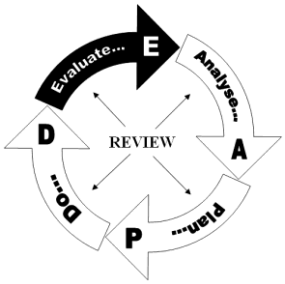
• Curriculum meetings • Demonstration lessons • Planning lessons together • Peer observation • Observation of lessons and feedback • Observation of students in lessons • Talking to students • Assessment of students' work before and after the CPD activity. • Marking of students' work, giving feedback and advice for development • Shadowing a teacher	• Action research • Professional reading and research • Visiting schools and teachers to see examples of good practice • Sharing/showing good practice within your school • Maintaining your professional portfolio • Team teaching • Workshops • Visiting experts • Mentoring • Discussion meetings

The activities above all contribute to improving and '**updating'** teacher performance.

Unplanned CPD

Not all CPD takes place as a result of a planned programme as part if the CPD Cycle. Much learning and sharing of good practice can take place as a result of normal day-to-day contact and discussion with professional colleagues.

The CPD Cycle – "Evaluate"



Reviewing and evaluating the effectiveness of CPD is an essential part of the cycle. Ultimately CPD is carried out to help students to become better learners, so it is important to judge whether each CPD programme is effective in doing that.

The CPD Action Plans, whether institutional or individual, should identify desired outcomes for each priority. These outcomes become the focus for review and evaluation.

When a programme is written, times for reviewing how the programme is progressing should also be planned.

Review could take place:

- during an individual's work, eg in a lesson or in planning time
- during, or at the end of a group activity, eg a workshop or a staff meeting
- during a regular monthly meeting of the CPD committee
- at the end of the CPD programme
- as a planned part of a specific programme, eg at the end of each module of the Higher Diploma Programme

As a result of regular planned or spontaneous review, changes and improvements to the programme can be made.

At the end of the programme, an evaluation should be conducted.

The process of evaluation should:

- celebrate success
- measure whether desired outcomes have been achieved
- identify additional unplanned outcomes
- identify less successful aspects of the programme
- inform future CPD needs at individual and institution level.

CPD is a cycle. Institutions and individuals should continuously be aspiring to improve, and therefore create better learning and achievement by all.

3 Time for CPD

Following Pre-service and Induction professional training, each Ethiopian teacher and instructor has a professional, personal and civic responsibility to undertake Continuous Professional Development throughout his or her career.

It follows then that time must be available to carry out this essential professional training. Teachers are very busy people and this should be taken into account during the planning stages of the CPD Cycle.

An individual teacher may ask questions and raise concerns about the time impact of CPD. For example:

- When does CPD take place? Does it take place after the school day, at weekends, in my free time?
- Where does the time come from? Will there be a reduction in my teaching obligations/credit hours?
- I need time to …….
    - work with a coach or a mentor
    - plan to employ the skills and methodologies that I am learning
    - observe colleagues and reflect with them on their practice
    - collaborate and carry out professional conversations with my colleagues
    - develop new and more effective teaching plans and teaching materials
    - attend CPD activities outside school, at cluster, woreda, zone, regional or national level
    - visit other schools to observe good practice
    - compile and develop my portfolio
- Others need time to observe my lessons and give me constructive feedback

In many developed and developing countries there is a requirement, often a mandatory requirement supported by legislation, that teachers should spend a minimum amount of time engaged in CPD.

Such legislation outlines the number of hours or days during which teachers have to engage with students. There are many examples of legislation for compulsory training days. On these CPD days no students attend classes, and teachers come together for training, sometimes in groups or clusters of institutions.

Each school teacher must take part in planned CPD activities for a minimum of sixty hours each year. These hours should be flexibly used to address the various CPD priorities which impact upon the work of the individual teacher or institution.

Each institution decides the way in which the sixty hours are allocated, responding to national, local and institutional priorities.

This document recommends that schools or departments carry out some of their CPD activities during 'CPD Days' as described above. The hours spent on CPD during these days would count towards the sixty hours. On these days students would not be present, and colleagues would focus together on planned CPD activities.

The Annual CPD Plan of each institution should allow time for national and local priorities.

The Annual CPD Plans of the Ministry of Education, REBs, ZEOs and WOEs should allow time for the CPD priorities of individual institutions.

CPD overload has a negative impact on the quality improvements in teaching and learning.

Advice on the many ways in which CPD activities may be organised in schools, is contained in "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit"

4. Resources and Materials to Support CPD

There are a wide variety of resources which can be used to support CPD activities and School CPS Modules. They come under two main headings, human resources and support materials.

4.1 Human Resources

Professional Colleagues at Institution Level

The most powerful and most accessible human resources for CPD are found in the institutions themselves – committed and supportive colleagues.

Research shows that teacher development activities are most effective when carried out collaboratively in an atmosphere of mutual support and encouragement.

Within an institution there are many informal opportunities to share good practice, to seek encouragement and suggestions for teaching and learning and to give supportive feedback.

The CPD approach adopted by the institution should give formal opportunities for collaborative working - mentoring, coaching, experience sharing, team planning, peer observation, team teaching etc - which will have a significant and lasting impact on teacher improvement and student achievement.

Most institutions also have professional colleagues who have a wealth of knowledge and experience and who are able to engage in formal and informal activities which enable them to share their expertise. Directors, Principals and Deans should always make a point of identifying and empowering these colleagues as Expert Teachers.

External Support

Local and regional educational authorities, such as WEOs, ZEOs or REBs, always have a number of supervisors and education experts on their staff. It is the responsibility of these experienced professionals to give help and advice to teachers in schools, colleges and universities on matters to do with subject knowledge or teaching methodology.

If the institution organising CPD does not have the necessary knowledge, expertise or experience, then they should ask for the help of an experienced and knowledgeable expert or organisation.

Here are some examples of situations in which external support may be used:

The expert (or expert team) may:

- give help on identification of needs
- give individual help on self-assessment
- help an institution carry out self-assessment
- give presentations and advice on subject matter, methodology and resources for the programme
- demonstrate good practice
- observe lessons and give feedback
- help in designing a programme
- facilitate a programme, session or activity
- train those who will be facilitating the actual training
- assist in monitoring and evaluating the CPD programme

Whenever engaging the help and support of experts, it is always important to have the objectives of the CPD programme at the centre of all discussions.

Other organisations, such as the Ministry of Education and many other international NGOs such as VSO, IFESH, USAID, UNICEF, JICA etc have the capacity and experience to offer expert help and support from individuals or teams. Contact details are available from REBs, ZEOs and Woreda Education Offices.

The document "CPD for Teachers in Ethiopia – A Practical Toolkit" gives more help and advice on working with outside experts.

Advice for universities and colleges will be produced in the future.

National CPD materials

These materials are intended to **support** locally based CPD
and not to **direct** it.

Teachers in schools have been following a CPD programme using three course books.

Course 1	Professional Ethics, Counselling and Mentoring Using Active Learning Methodology
Course 2	Gender and HIV AIDS issues, Continuous Assessment and Planning Approaches to Individual Subject Areas in the Context of Large Class Sizes
Course 3	Rural Development, Civics and Methodology

These courses are still relevant and will continue to offer support to School CPD modules. However, further additional copies will not be made available in the future. An updated selection from these manuals will be provided as CPD support modules.
These and other modules will provide a body of material to support specific CPD programmes in the context of Ethiopian education. They can be selected by institutions according to their needs based priorities.

Examples of national modules to be developed

- Practical skills in Mentoring
- The Purpose and Content of Portfolios
- Assessment for Learning
- Classroom Organisation and Management
- Active Learning
- Behaviour Management
- Effective Learning for All Students
- Population & Family Life and Reproductive Health
- Active Learning in Mathematics, Science and Languages
- How to Make Effective Use of Plasma
- The Self-Contained Classroom

One very important part of the CPD National Materials is the document entitled "Continuous Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers, Leader and Supervisors in Ethiopia – The Practical Toolkit". The document contains many examples of programmes or activities appropriate to particular needs in schools. There are suggestions of ways in which effective programmes can be constructed from a series of smaller activities. The purpose of the document is to give practical support and guidance to all who use it.

Support from REBs, ZEOs and WEOs

The priorities and planning needs of any region, zone or woreda in Ethiopia will vary.

REBs must produce materials to address regional CPD issues. In such a situation it is good practice for wide consultation to take place with all stakeholders in order that the materials may be of the highest quality and relevance.

Language should not be a barrier to learning.

Any materials should be produced in the language that teachers will understand best.

Institution Based Support Materials

An institution which is committed to CPD will collect resources focused upon all aspects of CPD including methodology and subject knowledge. For example, these resources could be books, professional articles, electronic information sources which will give advice on CPD issues and CPD activities in many different parts of the world, reports of action research and good practice from across the country. This provides access to, and engagement with, an appropriate body of knowledge.

In each institution resources should be systematically collected, catalogued and made available to all teachers, preferably in an area which is easily accessible to all professional colleagues.

Most institutions have examples of good practice in producing teaching and learning support materials which can be shared. These may be in many forms – posters, charts, practical teaching objects, display material, flash cards, information leaflets, etc. These also should be collected in the resource area where they may be evaluated, discussed and included into lesson planning.

5. Responsibilities of CPD Stakeholders

Each stakeholder in CPD has responsibilities. These can be either as an individual or as an institution.

Teachers are responsible for:

- ✓ engaging in their own Continuous Professional Development throughout their careers
- ✓ in consultation with others (eg mentor, supervisor), identifying personal CPD needs in the light of the institution's Annual CPD Plan and individual Professional Competencies
- ✓ working collaboratively with colleagues to improve teaching and learning
- ✓ carrying out sixty hours CPD each year
- ✓ putting CPD into practice in the classroom
- ✓ being committed to supporting the wider CPD needs of their institution
- ✓ maintaining a Professional Portfolio to record all their CPD and other professional activities

School leaders are responsible for :

- ✓ ensuring that learning and student achievement is inclusive, and at the centre of strategic planning and resource management
- ✓ creating a CPD management strategy within the institution
- ✓ ensuring that an effective CPD needs analysis is carried out each year
- ✓ together with colleagues, identifying issues for consideration as CPD priorities
- ✓ ensuring that the institution/department/faculty produces an Annual CPD Plan and manages the budget
- ✓ regularly monitoring the effectiveness of the changes to teaching and learning
- ✓ ensuring the quality of engagement of teachers in CPD activities, monitoring and assessing the content of individual Professional Portfolios and giving constructive feedback

- ✓ collaborating with other local institutional leaders to facilitate effective responses to shared CPD issues
- ✓ collaborating with woreda, zone and REB professionals to ensure that national and regional CPD priorities are addressed in institutional CPD planning
- ✓ taking part in regional and national CPD activities which ensure that their own knowledge and experience is up-to-date
- ✓ ensuring that all teachers in schools take part in sixty hours of CPD activities each year

Clusters are responsible for:

- ✓ establishing and supporting the Cluster CPD Committee
- ✓ managing and coordinating CPD activities within the cluster
- ✓ collating and sharing individual school CPD plans
- ✓ supporting, as appropriate, the Annual School CPD plans
- ✓ supporting Teachers' Professional Portfolio development
- ✓ providing opportunities for collaboration and the sharing of good practice within the cluster eg samples of good lessons, effective teaching strategies, innovative use of readily available materials for practical lessons etc
- ✓ making available resources for cluster schools to use in the classroom
- ✓ providing training opportunities as appropriate
- ✓ supporting the delivery of the Induction programme for Newly Deployed Teachers
- ✓ supporting inclusive education
- ✓ reporting annually to the woreda on cluster CPD activities
- ✓ maintaining an effective communication system between all the schools

Woreda and Sub-City Education Offices are responsible for:

- ✓ annually producing local CPD plans
- ✓ ensuring that all schools have annual CPD plans
- ✓ monitoring and evaluating the CPD activities of schools
- ✓ collecting data about CPD activities in the woreda/sub-city
- ✓ collecting data of individuals' and schools' participation in CPD
- ✓ providing support and training to clusters and schools via the supervisors
- ✓ raising awareness of and promoting inclusive education in all schools
- ✓ collaborating with school directors to administer the 'Induction' CPD process and to moderate the judgements on passing/failing
- ✓ providing support and advice on the maintenance of professional portfolios
- ✓ overseeing and facilitating the work of clusters and kebeles in their support of the CPD effort

Regional Education Bureaus/Zones are responsible for:

- ✓ analysing and identifying regional priorities, production of materials and delivering training to implement them
- ✓ sharing information with all stakeholders
- ✓ annually producing and circulating regional CPD plans
- ✓ appointing a responsible person for CPD
- ✓ allocating the resources needed to implement the regional CPD programme including the development of Teachers' Professional Portfolios
- ✓ ensuring that resources are written in the language that teachers will understand best, with high quality translation, produced in sufficient quantities (minimum ratio of 1 booklet to twenty teachers) and distributed throughout the region
- ✓ monitoring and Evaluating the CPD programme regionally and producing an annual report which should be submitted to the Process for Teachers and Leaders Development, Ministry of Education
- ✓ raising awareness of and promoting inclusive education throughout the region through CPD

- ✓ overseeing and facilitating the work of CTEs in their support of the CPD effort
- ✓ giving support to woredas, zones and sub cities within the region
- ✓ compiling Educational Management Information System (EMIS) CPD statistics for the region and submitting them annually to the MoE

The Ministry of Education is responsible for:

- ✓ analysing and identifying national priorities, production of materials and organising training to implement them.
- ✓ annually producing and circulating national CPD plans
- ✓ raising awareness of the need for Continuous Professional Development
- ✓ designing, implementing and reviewing the National Framework for CPD
- ✓ monitoring and evaluating the CPD programme nationally and producing an annual report
- ✓ producing support materials to be used throughout the Federal Republic
- ✓ helping to increase capacity by training trainers
- ✓ raising awareness of and promoting inclusive education through CPD
- ✓ collating and reporting EMIS CPD statistics
- ✓ producing an Annual CPD Plan for employees of the MoE
- ✓ giving support to regions
- ✓ conducting consultation meetings on achievements and challenges

6. Maintaining a Portfolio of Professional Learning

Each teacher is required to keep a portfolio of CPD activities. The purpose of this is to:

- Plan their CPD activities
- Keep a record of activities undertaken
- Provide evidence of participation in professional learning
- Reflect on progress and identify areas for development
- Provide a record of all development activities and identify improvement against the criteria for “Good Teaching”
- Provide a record of all development activities and identify improvement against the criteria for “Professional Competencies”
- Provide evidence that contributes to the annual performance review carried out for each teacher.

The appropriate members of each institution are responsible for monitoring and assessing the content of individual teachers’ Professional Portfolios and providing constructive feedback.

The portfolio **should** include the following:

- individual CV (personal and professional data and qualifications)
- individual CPD Action Plans
- evidence of all the CPD activities which have been undertaken by the individual teacher in the last three years
- feedback from mentors/facilitators
- teacher’s self-reflections on progress
- annual appraisal reports
- record of Professional Competencies achieved
- other evidence of personal development activities undertaken – eg Upgrading, Summer School programmes - that are not a part of the mandatory sixty hours
- examples of examination results with an analysis
- examples of lesson plans with evaluations

The portfolio **could** include any of the following:

- details of any Action Research undertaken
- attendance certificates for local, regional or national courses/workshops
- examples of materials prepared by the teacher as part of CPD activities
- reports on classroom observations by peers or line managers/mentors
- examples of curriculum development materials developed by the teacher
- examples of audio visual materials prepared by the teacher
- examples of assessment tasks and tests written and/or marking schemes developed by the teacher
- an analysis of the achievement of students in the teacher's classes
- awards received
- extra-curricular activities

A portfolio does not have to include every piece of evidence.
Semester and weekly lesson plans and student records should be kept elsewhere.
The portfolio should be edited regularly, out-of-date material removed and new material added.

There is no requirement to maintain duplicates of a portfolio. It is the teacher's responsibility to maintain and catalogue his or her own experience, but it must be made available on request to appropriate senior colleagues for monitoring and appraisal.

More detailed information and guidance on maintaining a portfolio of professional learning can be found in 'The Purpose and Content of a Teacher's Professional Portfolio' produced by Ministry of Education.

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